

The Modern Language Journal

Volume XXXII

MARCH, 1948

Number 3

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(An index for the periodical year is published annually. Beginning with its inception in 1929, *Educational Index* covers the subject-matter of the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL.)

Published by
The National Federation of Modern
Language Teachers Associations

The Modern Language Journal

STAFF, 1948

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Cervantes' Popularity Abroad

THE quadricentennial year of the birth of Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra is about gone as I write this, but the celebration will not have ceased entirely even by the time this appears in print, for some of the plans have called for extension well into 1948. Anyway, most of us will agree with the Director of Cultural Relations in the Cuban Ministry of State, who said to the PEN-Club in La Habana last year that "Cervantes is, or should be, permanently topical and up-to-date."¹

"Speaking of Books," J. Donald Adams recently had something to say in the *New York Times Book Review* about best sellers. He is of the opinion that "too frequently and in too many quarters interest has shifted from the book itself to the size of sales. . . . We are too best-seller conscious . . . far too impressed by all the absurd hullabaloo that is made about 'successful' writers." I hope I am not introducing Cervantes into the company of mushroom best-sellers, not helping to turn interest away from his works themselves to the number of editions they have gone through and the number of languages into which they have been translated, but there seems to be no way to indicate popularity without the use of figures on printings, translations and longevity. Other indications are not enough by themselves.

To a study of this kind there is no end. While the investigator is typing his manuscript, or at least before it gets through the press, more new items will appear somewhere in the world, and I am not so rash as to submit this as the last word on the subject. It merely represents what I have discovered up to the end of last December.

The names "Cervantes" and "*Don Quijote*" are not synonymous, to be sure, and yet such an idea is not so erroneous as to be absurd for, as excellent as some of Cervantes' other writings are, his popularity comes almost wholly from the *Don Quijote*. Consequently there will be much more about that book in my pages than about other works.

The wide range of acquaintance with the *Quijote* is everywhere known and acknowledged. Extravagant claims have been made about it. One such is that it has been translated into more languages than any other book except the Bible. There is at least one secular book that has far surpassed the *Quijote* in this respect, and other writings are beginning to push it closely for second honors.² We are prone to overlook the fact that books of any

¹ Quoted in *Spanish Cultural Index*, June 1, 1947, page 67.

² John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, according to the latest figures I have seen, has been translated into 108 languages and dialects. This work perhaps owes its wide spread to association with the Bible, but nevertheless it is a secular book. On the second point, according

merit simply do not stay at home any longer. Even books that one would hesitate to grant unusual importance run up a list of a score of translations in a fairly short time.³ What, then, may we safely say of the spread of the *Quijote*? That it is "the most widely-read secular book of the Western World"?⁴ Although that is probably true, it would be very difficult to prove. May one say that it is "the most printed book in the world, after the Bible"?⁵ That is most likely true, and perhaps demonstrable, although the size of editions is generally an unknown element. Certainly it seems unlikely that, with all its 108 languages, the *Pilgrim's Progress* has been issued in as many copies as *Don Quijote*.

The available bibliographies, when combined, supply a list of fifty-four languages into which at least parts of the *Quijote* have been translated.⁶ Some of them represent a *tour de force*, but that is beside the point. I have discovered no new languages to add to the list already known but can add numerous editions in various languages to any list previously published. Great care has been exercised in counting editions listed in the several bibliographies, but I have very little confidence that no duplicates have crept in. On the other hand, items may have been rejected (as duplicates) that should have been included. Possibly the two errors may about cancel each other.⁷ The accompanying table shows figures up to the time of writing, giving the date of first publication, the date of the last edition and the total number of editions or printings known to me.

There may be some surprises for the reader in this table. One, no doubt, will be the number of Japanese editions. This rather large number is probably due to the facility afforded by Japanese publishers for identifying editions. Would that English publishers were as careful! The number of Russian editions will also surprise some readers. It would certainly surprise the Hon. José Arce, Argentine delegate to the United Nations. He was reported in a news item last fall to have tried, in a certain misunderstanding,

to figures in *Life* (September 22, 1947, p. 26), Mr. Upton Sinclair "for the past 40 years has been and remains the most widely read of living writers in the world today," his works being available in forty-six different languages (or forty-four if Braille and Cyrillic are not accepted as "languages").

³ One such, the name of which I have forgotten, has recently been translated into its twenty-second foreign language. *The Prince of Foxes* (Shellabarger) is already readable in ten languages besides English (*New York Times Book Review*, December 21, 1947, p. 10).

⁴ Hutchins, R. M., quoted in *Hispania*, XXX, 300.

⁵ Pattison, W. T., in *Representative Spanish Authors*, Oxford University Press, 1942, p. 174.

⁶ The chief ones I have consulted are: Rius, *Bibliografía crítica*, 3 vols., Madrid, 1895-1905; the *Enciclopedia Universal* (article on the *Quijote*), up to 1920; Ford and Lansing, *Cervantes: A Tentative Bibliography*, 1931; Suñé Benages and Suñé Fonbuena, *A Critical Bibliography*, edited by Ford and Keller, 1939; and Grismer, *Cervantes: A Bibliography*, Wilson, 1946.

⁷ It might have been justifiable to count several Basque dialects separately instead of as one language, but that has not been done before and was not done in this case either.

EDITIONS, or PRINTINGS, of the *Don Quijote*, in SPANISH and TRANSLATIONS

First edition	Language	Last known edition	Total editions	First edition	Language	Last known edition	Total editions
1605	Spanish	1947	455	1878?	Persian		1
1612	English	1947	394	1879	Croatian	1931	2
1614	French	1935	321	1880?	Gujarati		1
1621	German	1939	76	1881	Hindustani	1903	4
1622	Italian	1934	80	1882	Bulgarian	1928	6
1656	Dutch	1922	30	1883	Malayan	1933	2
1769	Russian	1935	54	1884	Tagalog	1905	2
1776	Danish	1932	11	1884	Tartar		1
1786	Polish	1935	10	1884	Visayan		1
1794	Portuguese	1943	17	1896	Japanese	1933	39
1802	Swedish	1925	18	1904	Basque	1929	6
1813	Hungarian	1933	18	1905	Macaronic Lat.	1922	2
1817	Latin	1891	4	1905	Majorcan		1
1838	Czech	1931	15	1905	Esperanto	1924	4
1840	Rumanian	1936	7	1910	Low German		1
1847	Catalan	1930?	11	1912	Hebrew	1933	7
1848	Yiddish	1911	3	1921	Lettish		1
1860	Greek	1933	8	1921	Celtic		1
1860?	Turkish	1933	5	1922	Gaelic	1932	2
1862	Serbian	1895	3	1923	Estonian	1924?	3
1872	Ancient Greek		1	1924	Lithuanian		1
1872	Arabic	1923	2	1933	Valencian		1
1872	Chinese	1933	7	1935	Slovene		1
1872?	Prov. ncal	1890	3	1936	Kashmiri	1937	2
1872	Icelandic	1935	2	?	Mongolian		1
1873	Norwegian	1919	3	?	Sanskrit		1
1877	Finnish	1927	4	?	Tibetan		1
Total							1657

to explain his position to the Russian delegate, Mr. Gromyko, by stating that his people were Latins, of Spanish blood, who had read Cervantes and therefore had certain ideals. The implication was that the Russian people had not had that advantage. It seems that they have read Cervantes—dating back for more than 175 years.

It has been very generally held that the French have published more translations of the *Quijote* than other nationalities, and that may be true, for I am certainly in better position to get information about editions of English than of French translations.⁸ According to the figures at hand,

⁸ It seems rather strange that there should have been no French editions of the *Quijote* since 1935, yet this is in keeping with what Ronald Hilton writes in *Hispania*, XXX, 316: "In general, my inquiries reveal that Frenchmen nowadays do not read *Don Quijote*, and it seems that they have always been somewhat indifferent to any deep meaning in the book."

however, the English-speaking peoples lead the rest of the world in the number of editions of translations into any one language, just as they also led in making the first translation into any foreign language. Pertinent to the subject of the popularity of the *Quijote* in England is the fact that there are references to it in English writings before 1612. Professor Hilton mentions three such references.⁹

There are other respects, too, in which English peoples stand first among foreigners in relation to the *Quijote* and Cervantes. As far as I know, English is the only language besides Spanish that has a raised-letter edition for the blind. It was prepared in Boston in 1896 in three volumes. The first illustrations made *ex professo* for the *Quijote* appeared in the second London edition, probably in 1617 for Part I. (Part II appeared in 1618.) The first extensive commentary was made (although in Spanish) by an Englishman, the Reverend John Bowle, and published in England in 1781, at a time when the French and even many Spaniards were looking down their noses at the book. I believe that the largest number of important commentaries, as well as the first, have been made by English-speaking scholars. The French did not start theirs until the nineteenth century, but they are not far behind the English in number now.

The first full-length biography of the author was suggested and financed by the English Lord Carteret in 1738, although it was written in Spanish by a Spaniard and first published in Spain. If that is not a valid first for England, this fact will be: there are more biographies (fourteen) that may be called "full length" in English than in any other language except Spanish. French is close with twelve. (These figures refer to separate works, not editions.) Among the other nationalities, only Germans, Italians and Russians have essayed full biographies, and they trail far behind the English and French. (A Russian biography of Cervantes would very likely give Señor Arce another surprise.) Without being dogmatic about it, I believe, on the basis of my bibliographical notes, that there are more English translators than of any other nationality. I refer to complete translations or significant revisions, not to partial translations and minor revisions or abridgments. Such a list would be almost interminable, but there are more than twenty English translations or revisions on the important list, the French again being second with somewhat fewer than twenty.

England was slow in publishing its first edition in Spanish. There was none until 1738, while such editions had already appeared in Portugal, Belgium, Italy and France. England did, however, publish a Spanish edi-

⁹ *Hispania*, XXX, 316. Fitzmaurice-Kelly has attempted to explain the early interest of the English in the *Quijote*. He says it was because of the company of Spanish scholars that Catherine of Aragon assembled at Oxford and London while she was at the Court of Henry VIII. These men, he thinks, served as a ferment of spiritual interchange between the two countries.

tion almost a hundred years before one was published in Spanish America. The first Spanish edition printed in the United States lagged only three years behind the first one in the other Americas, which was published in Mexico in 1833.

It is not surprising that there have been more editions of the original Spanish than of any one language translation, but let it not be assumed that all, or most, of them have been issued in Spain. In fact, of the 455 Spanish editions (partial and complete) of which I have notice—including texts edited for class use (36 of these in the United States)—178, or about two out of five, have been published outside of Spain. Of these 178, almost half (85) have been published in England and America. The division of editions among England, Latin America and Saxon America is this: England 10, Latin America 15 and the United States 60. Since there are text editions in all groups, but more in the United States list (it is easier to find out about them here than abroad), let us subtract them from the total. That leaves 24 editions for the United States, still almost as many as in England and Latin America combined. This does not support the idea that "in the United States, *Don Quijote* seems to have enjoyed relatively little popularity."¹⁰ But since relatively few of our people read Spanish, we must look to the translations to discover the popularity of the *Quijote* in the United States. It is impossible for me to give the number of copies printed, but Mr. Bennett A. Cerf, President of Random House, writes that "we have now in print three different editions of the book. . . . All three editions, incidentally, are selling very well indeed."¹¹ The earliest of these Modern Library editions was introduced in 1930, the last in 1946. One can also point to the many re-printings of the Everyman's Library edition, which has a large sale in this country. This edition was introduced in 1909, and there have been nineteen printings all told (size of printings unknown to me), as stated in a letter I had from the Stock and Royalty Department of J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., dated October 21, 1947. Counting both the above and all others listed in the bibliographies, catalogs and book indexes, I have a list of 149 editions of the various English translations, revisions and abridgments that have been published in this country. (Some of these have been published simultaneously in Canada or England or both.) I do not believe these 149 editions are largely used in "formal university Spanish classes."

Don Quijote is not the only child of Cervantes' brain that has gone abroad. There are translations of practically everything he wrote, but the minor works seem from my admittedly inadequate study to have been honored more by imitations for the theater than by translation. Many of the *Novelas ejemplares*, particularly, have been made into plays and skits

¹⁰ Hilton, *Hispania*, XXX, 317. "If read at all, it is largely because of formal university Spanish classes."

¹¹ Quoted in *Hispania*, XXX, 303.

for the stage in various languages. They have, of course, being of superior merit, been translated more than any of the other minor works also. There are versions of one or more in twelve languages running to 160 editions.

Of separate *novelas*, *Rinconete y Cortadillo* is most popular abroad (15 editions in 6 languages); *La gitanilla* is second with 12 editions in 5 languages; and the *Coloquio de los perros* is third with ten editions in 3 languages. *La ilustre fregona* appears in five languages but in only eight editions. The *Licenciado Vidriera*, *La fuerza de la sangre* and the *Celoso extremeño* are about equal in popularity, to judge by both languages and editions: 4, 4, 3 languages and 7 editions each. At least 7 of the *novelas* have been published in Spanish with notes in foreign languages for students of English (9), French (2), German (6) and Italian (5), to the number of 22 different texts. There are more English texts, you will notice, than any other.

The most popular of the other minor works is the *Galatea*, with 38 editions in 4 languages: French (23), English (8), German (4) and Italian (3). It is of interest to notice that Florian's French version has been retranslated into English, German and—above all things!—back into Spanish (1830). The *entremeses* come next with 30 printings, but in only two languages (English and German). *Persiles y Sigismunda* has been issued 18 times thus: English (1), French (8), German (6) and Italian (3). The *comedias* have interested only the French, it seems, two of them having been translated and one having been reprinted for a total of 3 editions. The *Viaje del Parnaso* has had three printings, one each in English, French and Dutch.

The figures for the minor works appear anemic indeed beside the robust ones for the *Quijote*. There can be no question that they are less popular than the *Quijote*, but besides that, these figures are no doubt much further from being complete than the other set. For one thing, there are in the bibliographies foreign titles that may be translations of some of these minor works which I have not yet been able to identify and hence have not included in my figures.

From some figures given earlier in this article, it seems that Latin America has hardly kept up with the rest of the world in such homage to Cervantes as is indicated by publication of his works. (I have not yet compiled figures relating to his minor works in Latin America.) This cannot be taken to measure reader interest, however, for importation from Spain began as early as 1605 and has been possible at all times although hampered considerably during parts of the colonial period.

There are other activities besides publishing that indicate the popularity of Cervantes. The quadricentennial celebration of his birth, for one, has been as wide as the western world. A list of the celebrations could not be made complete and it would be tedious anyway, but reports have come to my attention in one form or another of observance of the centenary in most of the Spanish American countries and in the following potentially less interested countries: Andorra, Belgium, Brazil, Egypt, England, France,

Holland, Italy, Portugal and, of course, the United States. Among the Spanish American countries, Argentina, Cuba and Mexico seem to have been most active.

The observance has taken various forms, among which are these: literary contests for books, poems, essays and studies, with prizes ranging upward to 20,000 pesos (in Mexico; in Spain a prize of 50,000 pesetas has been offered); architectural contests for monuments, others for plaques and busts; formal programs consisting of lectures, music, poetic readings and the presentation of Cervantes' dramatic works; book exhibits; radio programs; making and showing of motion pictures; articles in daily press and magazines; stamp issues;¹² erection of monuments; establishment of museums; and publication of special editions of Cervantes' works. Spain seems to have led all countries in paying respects to the author of *Don Quijote*.¹³ Both governmental agencies and other organizations have been very active, especially the former—unless the reports are mere propagandistic "eyewash."

Odd and otherwise interesting things come to one's attention in a search such as this. Here are a few of them. Some must have been works of love. One Spaniard prepared a typewritten edition in 1929, bound in two volumes with plates by a prominent illustrator. There are two handwritten reproductions made by Spaniards, one imitating the chirography of the seventeenth century. A blind man in Valencia made a raised-letter copy for others afflicted like himself. I have notice of three miniature editions, two of them at least being in two volumes. One is described as being of the "*tamaño de una caja de fósforos*." Two editions have been printed on sheets of cork, one in Lisbon and the other in the famous cork town of San Feliu de Guixols in Cataluña. There is also an edition of five of the *Novelas* printed on cork. An Italian translated the *Quijote* into *ottava rima*, three volumes, 1807, and even a Spaniard has made a "*traducción literal de prosa en verso*." English editions have been published in Spain and Japan, in the latter case as textbooks for the study of English. Let one more example suffice, the oddest of the oddities: a children's edition was made in Buenos Aires in 1938 by translating a Portuguese version back into Spanish!

Can there ever have been another writer in the world who has had so much written about him and his works as Cervantes? His bibliography is literally endless. Articles are not likely to continue to be written at the same rate as recently, because of the centennial, but the *manco* of Lepanto has a marvelous vitality in the hearts of the world. If one seeks a reason, I

¹² In Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica and Chile. Mexico has announced one, and Spain has issued a series of three denominations, as well as an elaborate and very interesting series of *matasellos*.

¹³ Perhaps the information from Spain has been better disseminated than that from other countries. It should be noted that my conclusion is not in accord with the opinion expressed by Sr. Ramón Sender in an article in the August 9, 1947, number of the *Saturday Review of Literature*, in which he minimizes the admiration of Spain for Cervantes.

believe it is suggested in the title of a study published in 1905 (by a Spaniard), comparing the works of Moses, Homer and Cervantes: "The Book of God, the Book of Heroes, and the Book of Men."

Does popularity of a writer mean that he is read much? Is Cervantes read much? There are those who say that he is the most printed and the least read author in the world. The venom of that extravagance betrays its maliciousness. Why, there are enough typesetters and proofreaders concerned in its extensive printing to keep the *Quijote* from being the least read book! I cannot prove it, but it is my opinion that this book *is* read a great deal. There are episodes in it that are known to vast numbers of persons, old and young, in half a hundred tongues—and these episodes are the *Quijote*. Does every one of Shakespeare's plays have to be read regularly before one can say that he reads Shakespeare? Must one read the entire Bible from cover to cover regularly before he can say that he reads the Bible? The answer is obvious. Spot-reading of the *Quijote* is reading Cervantes, just as truly as reading favorite passages in the Bible over and over to the neglect of large portions of it is reading the Bible—and reading it honestly.

Undoubtedly there is reason for believing that Cervantes is read—that is, if the *Quijote* in translation is really Cervantes. The translatability of this book has concerned many students. Our bibliography shows this series of titles: One writer asks, "¿Puede traducirse el *Quijote*?" Another answers, "Puede traducirse el *Quijote*." Still another replies, however, "El *Quijote* no se puede traducir," and a fourth agrees, "El *Quijote* es intraducible," while a fifth assumes "La intraducibilidad del *Quijote*." The "no's" seem to have it. But what difference does it make? Even if the *Quijote* cannot be translated, it has been turned into more than half a hundred languages, by scores of translators, and has run through the presses in over 1200 editions and re-printings to become the world's most popular secular book.

Yes, Cervantes *can* be translated, he *is* read and his popularity abroad is well established. Furthermore, among his friends of strange tongues, the English-speaking peoples are surely those who admire and love him most.

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[The substance of this article was presented before the Cervantes group of the Spanish section of the meeting of the South Atlantic Modern Language Association in Chattanooga, Tennessee, November 28, 1947. Late word from the author informs us that the *Quijote* is also available for the blind on phonograph records, prepared and distributed by Talking Books, through the Library of Congress. About 110,000 copies of their three editions have been printed by Random House Publishers. *Editor's note.*]

Reading German with Eye and Ear

IN recent years we have had the opportunity to watch numerous experiments in the teaching of basic language courses. The intensified courses adopted in a few colleges seemed for a time to be the answer to our problems: seven to twelve contact hours a week in sections of only ten or twelve students. This arrangement makes real oral training possible from the beginning, and oral facility, being the demanding skill that it is, provides an excellent basis for the ready acquisition of other skills: listening, writing, reading. But these intensified courses have not been as contagious as many of us have hoped; in fact, some of those that were established are disappearing again because of crowded conditions, a shortage of competent teachers, financial strain and the plain fact that *serious* language study is still far from popular. The battle for small classes and more time is yet to be won. Beginning college classes of twenty-five, thirty or more students meeting from three to five hours a week are still the order of the day. And at least half of the students in these classes are not returning for a second year of study.

In view of all this, language teachers have recently done a great deal of casting about for an approach that can be used effectively in the first year without prejudice to either the one-year student or the student who continues. If we agree that reading is still the major objective of college German study, it does not seem fair or efficient to offer the one-year student chiefly active grammar and composition. On the other hand, if the course is designed to teach passive grammar and silent reading from the beginning, it ignores the spoken language and consequently falls into the danger of becoming unnatural and lifeless.

I believe that we have found one possible solution to this problem in an experimental beginners' course at the University of Colorado. This course was tried out on a small scale last year, and again last summer, and is now being conducted in most of our beginning liberal arts classes. The course places equal major stress on the skills of *reading and listening*, and it *postpones* training in speaking and writing until the following years of study. Grammar is treated passively throughout most of the first year. This does not mean, however, that it is not treated thoroughly.

Let me point out some of the most important reasons for the adoption of an approach which makes ability to "read" with the ear a major aim along with ability to read with the eye.

To begin with, auditory comprehension is a language skill which *can* be developed effectively in large beginning classes. Other things being equal,

progress in speaking proficiency is almost directly related to class size, but this is not true of progress in listening ability.

By stressing auditory comprehension we are giving the student ample opportunity to acquire a good pronunciation through imitation. The importance of a consistently good pronunciation in learning to read can hardly be exaggerated. Although psychologists have not yet determined precisely to what extent inner speech takes place, it is an established fact that sub-vocal pronunciation accompanies silent reading.¹ This is especially true in the reading of unfamiliar languages. One of the requisites of good silent reading then becomes the ability to pronounce. It may be argued, of course, that a consistently bad pronunciation will not necessarily retard ability to get the thought of the text. However, M.S. Pargment has pointed out how disastrous this is. First, thought-getting will be the only result of reading; appreciation of rhyme, rhythm and color of tone is impossible. Second, "a person so trained will be crippled for life as far as the oral use of the language is concerned."²

Not only do we pronounce sub-vocally while reading silently, but we also mentally hear words and phrases. Training in auditory comprehension enables the student to recognize more readily the sound reactions that accompany the maneuvers of his eye. The following passage from Ernst Juenger is of interest:

"The course of the word is from mouth to ear; it is the spoken, audible word. This is also true in reading, which employs the eye as an aid, or in Braille, which employs the sense of touch. We always read 'by detouring' through the sense of hearing—that is, in passing over the lines and pages we mentally pronounce the content to ourselves; . . . we translate the visual text."³

According to this, then, listening *is* reading, without the circuitous visual process.

More so than in most types of class recitation, the daily auditory drill periods offer a fine opportunity for individualized instruction. The teacher soon discovers about how much spoken German each student can readily repeat or translate with accuracy. By going the full limit with every student as often as the dictates of common sense permit, the feeling that time is

¹ Gray, Louis H., *Foundations of Language*. Macmillan, New York, 1939, p. 96; Hagboldt, Peter, *Language Learning*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1935, pp. 6, 7-9, 41-43, 53, 113-114; Hocking, Elton, "Pronunciation and Silent Reading," *Italica*, XX (1943), pp. 30-34; Pillsbury, Walter B. and Meader, Clarence L., *The Psychology of Language*. D. Appleton, New York, 1928, pp. 13, 101-102, 143, 206; Swanson, Donald E., "Common Elements in Silent and Oral Reading," *Psychological Monographs*, XLVIII, 3 (1937), pp. 57-59; Watson, John B., *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*. J. B. Lippincott, Philadelphia, 1919, pp. 316, 324-327.

² Pargment, M. S., "What Constitutes a Reading Knowledge of a Foreign Language, and How It Can Be Acquired." *French Review*, XVII (1943), p. 79.

³ Juenger, Ernst, *Sprache und Koerperbau*. Verlag die Arche, Zuerich, 1947, pp. 49-50.

being wasted has only a minimum chance to grow. Occasionally we read as many as four lines of German without stopping and find that the better students can echo them back to us in English with astounding accuracy.

The indolent student finds it impossible to dodge his responsibilities. The nature of the course forces upon every student full participation in the work of the class for he may be called upon at any time to repeat or translate a sentence that has already been read. Bluffing in this sort of situation is out of the question. If the student asks to have the sentence repeated, he is clearly admitting failure, and most students are reluctant to do this. The result is that the entire class is with the instructor from the beginning to the end of all auditory exercises. Incidentally, the instructor must also be with the entire class; consequently, the hour's teaching frequently becomes unusually strenuous, but the satisfaction derived is well worth the price.

In spite of the fact that reading ability is the first legitimate objective of our language courses, the majority of the men and women in our classes also harbor an understandable desire to learn to speak the language. Student demand certainly deserves our serious consideration. But if we are forced to rule out training in speech for the first year, we are meeting our students at least halfway if we teach them to understand the spoken word. It has always seemed significant to me that frequently when American language students go abroad and try out what they have "picked up" in class, they get lost or go hungry, not so much because they are unable to express their needs intelligibly but rather because they fail to understand what is said to them.

At this point we may very well ask how this approach affects those who continue their language study beyond the first year. The student who is interested mainly in reading may enter a second-year reading course in which his auditory skill is further developed by the inclusion of frequent, serious talks on the material of the course. By the time this student reaches the literature courses of the third and fourth years, he will be capable of absorbing adequately presented foreign language lectures. Such lectures can do much to stimulate student interest in good literature. Especially is this true if the student's reading has progressed beyond the stage of pure deciphering. By virtue of constant exposure to the suggestive intonation and "phrasing" of his teachers, the student is inclined to read directly and, consequently, with maximum appreciation of the author's style. The habit of marshalling the words of the text into the proper groups is one of the most important features of enjoyable, intelligent silent reading.

On the other hand, the student who is eager to gain a practical command of the language may enter a course in conversation and composition. Here the passive skills acquired in the first year will be activated. Conversational ability depends to a greater degree than we commonly suspect on the ability to understand the spoken word. The student who enters the conversation and composition course with a reading knowledge *fortified* by auditory

ability will find the gap between what he has and what he wants considerably narrower than the student who enters with little or no experience in listening.

It is in this practical course, and the more advanced ones like it which follow, that enrollment must be strictly limited. In many colleges no special effort will be required to keep this class from growing too large. But wherever this course does grow beyond the manageable size of ten or twelve students, permission to form another section will probably not be difficult to obtain. Putting 300 assorted beginners into thirty sections of ten each is one problem, but dividing twenty second-year students, who know what they want, into two groups of ten each is quite another matter.

Our basic text for the course has been Sharp and Strothmann, *German Reading Grammar*. Although not representing Ginn and Company, I do feel that this book is a great contribution to the field of German teaching and that it is well adapted to the particular approach we are using. The book contains about 110 pages of good reading material, a fairly complete German grammar and various schemes designed to build a large passive vocabulary. The reading material is based on about 1300 words, chiefly of high frequency, but the vocabulary-building exercises throughout the book add at least as many more in the form of derivatives and compounds. Six hundred pages of additional intensive and extensive reading, including ten of the *Graded German Readers*, some stories and *Novellen*, some poetry and a one-act play, further increase the students' passive vocabulary.

We treat the reading texts of Sharp and Strothmann very thoroughly. Upon assigning a new text, we always try to devote ten or fifteen minutes to it before sending the students home. At times this "preview" is carried out with books closed, at other times with books open. The instructor simply reads the new text clause by clause and checks for comprehension by watching the class, by asking questions or by having the whole thing translated. Students are encouraged to guess at meanings of derivatives and compounds, but English equivalents of completely new words are usually supplied by the instructor. We find that these "previews," in which the new vocabulary and grammar are treated functionally, give the student an excellent basis for the efficient preparation of the lesson.

Except for the verbs, we expect very little reproductive knowledge of grammar. The exercises in Sharp and Strothmann include some composition, but this we omit, as well as other active grammatical drill. However, we always ask German questions on the stories, whether they be those furnished or some of our own invention. We find that most students are able to answer these quite adequately with complete German sentences.

Our chief exercise material, however, is not to be found in the exercise sections at all. It is in the reading texts. After the student has had his chance to study the reading text, we ask him to close his book and then we read it to

him, clause by clause or paragraph by paragraph, and check for comprehension. This is done with very little repeating on our part and at normal speed. We find that if we practice the habit of not repeating, and that of reading at normal speed, the student learns to expect nothing easier and is fully prepared for it. In other words, we try to get every student to develop the habit of listening carefully to everything the first time.

In order to keep students from memorizing prepared English translations of the reading texts we often change them considerably, and we also introduce original yarns within the range of their vocabulary. Practically all of our material in auditory tests consists of such original stories.

We devote considerable time to dictation, which, we feel, does much to sharpen listening power. It also calls close attention to sounds, thus aiding the students in their pronunciation of German.

Another frequent exercise is that of having the student read German aloud. In fact, we tell our classes that the quality of their work depends equally on three abilities: silent reading for comprehension, reading aloud and auditory comprehension.

A few of the students in the auditory course soon begin to beg for mercy because of an alleged inherent inability to understand foreign languages when they are spoken. We immediately point out to them that they learned English by imitating the speech of others. The trouble, of course, is usually a matter of neglect of vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation, and we take steps to prove this to the student. If he still imagines that his chief difficulty is the lack of a gift for listening, we offer him our own recordings of the reading texts so that he may hear the readings as often as he likes at home or in the phonetics laboratory. The opportunity to listen to recordings is, of course, available to all students.

There is only one way to indicate accurately to what extent the auditory skill is developed in this approach: the student must be able to "read" with the ear whatever he can read with the eye. Less than this will bring about an eventual breakdown of the entire system. If the auditory skill is allowed to lag, the instructor is gradually forced to over-simplify the auditory exercises more and more, and in so doing he is making the course increasingly sterile. Keeping auditory ability at the level of visual ability means that books are closed for most of the time devoted to recitation. Visual powers are developed at home during study hours, but auditory powers can be developed adequately only during class time.

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[This article, with a few minor changes, was read at the South-Central Modern Language Association meeting in Biloxi, Mississippi, November 1, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

Better International Relationships through Student-Teacher Exchanges

A GREAT deal has been written and spoken lately about promoting better international feelings and understandings. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization has been set up to promote harmony among the nations of the world. The United Nations Organization itself is striving toward such an end. Much of the framework for the establishment of a lasting peace has already been erected. The peoples of the world are now, as never before, peace-conscious. They are exerting themselves to the maximum in an endeavor to understand one another. It is, in the final analysis, the peoples of the world who make the government and it is their will which is carried out. In order that there may be better understandings there must be mutual respect and understanding of each other. The will of the people in the field of better relationships is called the foreign policy. Will our foreign policy be based on ignorance, suspicion, prejudice and hate? We the people speak and what we speak is translated into treaties and laws which become our foreign policy.

Upon organized education rests the very grave responsibility of developing a cooperative spirit. In particular, we language teachers have a large part to play in developing this cooperative spirit. We must be concerned not only with the mechanical composition of foreign language; we must teach our students not only to read, write, translate and speak a foreign language; we must train them also to think in the foreign language. We must give our students an insight into the manners, habits and customs of the people whose language we are teaching, thus developing an understanding of peoples based upon a knowledge of their way of life and an appreciation of their culture gained through the medium of a study of their language.

That our government is taking a more than passing interest in this matter is evidenced by the fact that our State Department has granted various colleges sums of money to promote and carry out exchanges. In addition they have granted various scholarships to students in this country to study abroad and to foreign students to study in this country. The various Latin American republics have shared in these fellowships. Since 1940 to the present, 135 Latin American students have been awarded fellowships by the government of the United States in accordance with the Buenos Aires Convention. At the Buenos Aires Peace Convention of 1936 it was thought that the purposes of peace would best be served by promoting mutual understandings between the peoples and institutions of the nations

represented. Such results would best be promoted by an exchange of students and teachers between the Americas. Sixteen nations ratified the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations. From this we can see that such a project presents an opportunity and a challenge to the schools and colleges today.

Because of our location and proximity to Latin America and because of our Latin American heritage and traditions, we of this region should be greatly interested in the exchange movement. The future trade and industrial hopes of this section of the United States lie to the South with its great and relatively undeveloped market in the Caribbean.

In our quest for new trade outlets we must of necessity look to that great undeveloped market of the Caribbean. The Caribbean nations are anxious to trade with us and they present a fruitful market and outlet for our goods. Schools and colleges must aid in this trade development by training the future business men in the language, customs and habits of their clients. Before engaging in trade, business must learn, first of all, something of the countries with which it will trade. Latin Americans are a proud people—proud of their culture and heritage. But above all they are shrewd business men. All other things being equal, they will trade with nations that understand and respect them. In the past, business has made a great mistake in not learning more of the cultural background of South America and, above all, in not learning its languages. Were I to be given a choice of two knowledges, knowledge of the language and people or knowledge of business, my choice would be the first for I have learned that it is the more important of the two in the eyes of our Latin American friends. In not understanding the people and in not learning the language, United States business has suffered in Latin America. Student-teacher exchanges offer an opportunity to learn the language and to become better acquainted with the customs and manners of the people speaking that language.

We need to learn not how the other countries differ but how they are like us. Too many people have only a vague and nebulous idea of the people of Latin America and their customs. We think of the typical Mexican as a cigarette-smoking, huge sombreroed, mustached, swarthy individual wearing sandals and a sarape, asleep in the sun with his hat shading his eyes, too lazy to move; and of the typical South American as a sleek-haired, guitar-playing, gay caballero serenading his lady love under the *balconcita*. This is the Hollywood version. We must dispel such pictures and create the picture of the true individual Latin American who can be and will be a friend and neighbor. Student-teacher exchanges will help us learn the true Latin American and will do much to dispel the false impressions so current.

Dollar diplomacy as practiced by us for many years is fast giving way to a diplomacy based upon mutual respect and friendship. The dollar grabbing "Yanqui" of North America is becoming that friend and neighbor to the

North. Prior to the war, in Colombia as a student and an exchange teacher, I saw England, Italy and Germany taking over profitable trade that we should have had. Latin America is ready and anxious to trade with us, but we have been our own worst enemy.

All German, English and Italian trade representatives were required to have a reading and speaking knowledge of Spanish and an understanding of their culture and customs. On the other hand, I found very few United States business men in South America who could speak Spanish or who were interested in the people. Those business men formed a close knit colony and had no dealings, other than pure business, with the people. The people greatly resented this attitude on the part of our business men, and our trade relations and dealings with them suffered greatly. From a purely economic point of view, a better understanding of the people and their manners and customs will pay big dividends. What better way to establish better relationships and understandings than through exchanges?

Today the picture is changing. Both as a result of the war and from bitter experience, business has learned that it can do more and better business with the people of a foreign nation in their own language. Many companies engaged in foreign trade have now established schools for language-teaching and indoctrination programs. Not only are the elements of the language stressed, but also a sympathetic understanding of the people's way of life is stressed.

Great future possibilities in government service and foreign trade lie ahead of us and it is up to the schools to train people for these positions. These positions are going to be offered to qualified personnel and one of the prerequisites will be a knowledge of foreign language.

Another advantage of such a project is that of promoting better international relationships and understanding between the nations of the northern and southern hemisphere. We are living in an atomic age and an age of youth. It is to the youth of the world that we must look for the future salvation of the world. We have just concluded a terrible war as a result of which millions of men died in the flower of youth, millions of others have been wounded and crippled and millions of dollars spent. Now that that great and terrible war has been concluded, we are thinking of ways and means of preventing another such tragedy. If better relationships and better understandings could be established between the youth of the world, such bloody conflicts would be avoided. It is from the students that the future political and business leaders of the world will come. One of the prime causes of war is misunderstanding and ignorance of the other people. I am certain that no student who has visited a foreign country as an exchange student and has gained an understanding and knowledge of the customs of the other countries would ever consent to engage in war with his student friends of the other countries. We are thoroughly convinced that, if we can promote

better understandings between the youth of the world, the first milestone in the elimination of war will have been passed.

Allow me to relate to you some of the experiences I had in arranging and carrying out an exchange and the results of that project. It is an established and acknowledged fact that a foreign language is best mastered in the environment in which it is spoken and that association with native speaking people provides the best medium whereby students of a language may improve their knowledge of the language. In 1939, in cooperation with the United States Department of State, the Pan American Union and the Ministry of Education of the republic of Colombia, an exchange of students and teachers was arranged between a Military Junior College in Texas and the Colegio Ramirez-Academia Militar of Bogotá, Colombia. The exchange was arranged not to interfere with the regular work of either school. A group of students from Ramirez School visited Texas in January as guests of the Texas school. As it was a boarding school, each guest was assigned a room with one of our students of Spanish. This served a dual purpose in giving our students practice in speaking their Spanish, and in giving the Colombian students practice in speaking English. Since none of the group from Colombia spoke any English, it was necessary for them to attend special classes in English. In the dining hall, the guests were distributed among our students. The Colombian students soon learned English in order to eat. Our students also had an opportunity to practice their Spanish. In their rooms, the Colombian visitors and their English speaking roommates became fast friends and many a fine friendship developed. By being constantly subjected to English all during their waking hours, the Colombians made such progress in English that, within a few weeks, they were able to attend regular classes in English. We learned that placing the Spanish speaking students in our Spanish classes helped them make better progress in English. The Colombian boys acted as critics and tutors in our Spanish classes, and from time to time they gave short talks in Spanish to our Spanish classes. This provided an opportunity to the students of Spanish to hear Spanish spoken by natives, and it gave our students an insight into the cultural, economic and geographical features of South America. Upon their departure from Texas, the Colombian students made a great circle tour of the United States, stopping in Washington where they were received in audience by the Secretary of State, the Pan American Union and the Ambassador of Colombia. Our guests were greatly impressed and well pleased with their reception and the treatment accorded them, and they departed loud in their praise of their American friends. A great deal of good was accomplished by the visit of the Latin American students; we gained a new insight into the character of our friends to the South, and they gained a new insight into the rank and file of their neighbors to the North.

In July of the same year, I accompanied a group of students from Texas

to Colombia where we were to be guests of the Academia Militar. We sailed from New Orleans to Barranquilla by way of Panama. Bogotá lies some 250 miles or more from Barranquilla, high in the Andes Mountains in north central Colombia. No railroad goes from Barranquilla and no principal highway. One either goes down, or rather up, the Magdalena river to Giradot and thence by rail to Bogotá, or one must fly. When we arrived in Barranquilla, we were met by our consul in Barranquilla who had been informed of our arrival. Also we learned that an official party from the National Government in Bogotá was on hand to greet and welcome us to Colombia. We were made official guests of the Colombian government and accorded the courtesy of the port, our baggage being given diplomatic status and not made subject to inspection. We were informed that the President of the Republic had sent his special plane to fly us to Bogotá. On hand at Bogotá to greet us were representatives of the school and representatives of the Colombian government and a representative from the United States Ambassador. As the Academia was also a boarding school, the same plan was followed there as in Texas. The visitors were placed in rooms with Colombian boys and were seated at the table among boys who spoke no English. As exchange professor, I taught classes in English grammar and literature. Our students were enrolled in regular classes in Spanish grammar, literature and Colombian history. They also attended classes in English for it had been learned from experience that almost as much progress in Spanish was made in English classes as in Spanish since English was taught in Spanish.

Our group made good progress in their studies and within a very short time were speaking Spanish quite fluently. All students who went from Texas had at least a year of Spanish prior to their visit to Colombia. With that background, they improved and progressed to a remarkable degree. It is essential that anyone who goes as an exchange student have a background of at least one year of the language before going to the foreign country.

During our stay in Colombia we were the recipients of many favors. We found the people courteous, kind, generous and very appreciative of our desire to learn more about their language, customs and manner of living. They held a very high opinion of the people of the United States and were very desirous of promoting better understandings and relationships between the two republics. We were received in audience by the President of the Republic, the Minister of Education, the Secretary of War and other officials, all of whom greeted us cordially and expressed themselves as highly pleased with the project as a medium of bringing the peoples of the two sister countries closer to each other through a study of the language, literature and customs of the other.

Exchanges of students and teachers promote a better knowledge and understanding of a foreign language by providing an opportunity for the

study of the language in the foreign country among native speaking people. Also, they serve to close the wide gap between book knowledge of the language and the practical knowledge of the language which is so lacking because of lack of opportunity and time to practice.

Study and lectures are not sufficient for an understanding of foreign peoples. They must be enriched and enlarged by friendships with students of foreign countries. ✓

The study of foreign languages is at last coming into its own. During the war the Army found it necessary to set up training centers for the teaching of language and area studies to military personnel. This was an acknowledgement on the part of the Army that military personnel about to enter a foreign area and deal with foreign people should be prepared to deal with them in their own language. Furthermore, a study of the customs of the people gave the G. I. a better idea of what to expect and how to conduct himself in the country. The attention thus attracted to the study of foreign languages and to the undenied benefits gained by the study of a foreign language made a great impression upon the public. As a result of the war and of our foreign commitments, it will be necessary for us to maintain large occupation forces and a huge staff of civilian experts in foreign countries for years. Hence there will be opportunities for employment in the foreign service of the government. One of the prerequisites for this type of employment will be a knowledge of a foreign language. Schools will be called upon to supply this force of language workers. The individual who has studied in a foreign country will receive top priority for a good government position. Trade and business opportunities with calls for students who have had commercial training combined with knowledge of a foreign language will be increased. Thus as never before, the teaching of foreign languages is on the increase and our curricula are being revised to include them.

In conclusion, from my own experience and observation, I am firmly convinced that, if we are to better international relationships and bring about a lasting world peace, the nations of the world must advance to a greater mutual understanding of each other and to a mutual respect for the institutions and habits of one another. Such understanding and respect can be appreciably promoted by an exchange of students and teachers among the nations of the world. Such projects will pay profitable dividends in the stock of world peace and international understandings.

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[This paper was presented at the Northwestern State College Foreign Language Conference, Natchitoches, Louisiana, May 2-3, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

Scientific Russian

WHAT is the main purpose of teaching languages? Considering the time spent by the student, does he acquire sufficient knowledge of the language to permit him to use it in his study or research? Or does the time spent result only in a passing grade in the required subject and a loss of the knowledge obtained immediately upon leaving school? It would be impossible to answer these questions accurately without systematic research, but would that help the situation?

In my personal experience, very few persons with college degrees who have ten or fifteen hours of credit in a language are able to use this language in their work. The number of such persons who have consulted me in the last five or six years is astonishingly high.

From my point of view, the first requirement of successful language teaching is the immediate recognition of the use to which the student will put his linguistic knowledge. The methods used in teaching must be adjusted to the objectives of the students. I shall discuss these objectives in relation to teaching Russian since I have been working most recently in this field. Broadly, these student objectives could be divided into four categories: first, study of the spoken language; second, study of the literary language for reading purposes; third, fundamental study for translation purposes, and fourth, study of the language for scientific reading in the student's major field.

It seems axiomatic that four different methods need to be used to accomplish successfully such different objectives. An analysis of these objectives will indicate that some of them as applied to Russian are more important than others.

In regard to the spoken language—how many students are expecting to visit Russia? The present political situation indicates that there will be very little travel by private citizens from the West to Russia for some time to come. For official travelers, the army already has in use a new method for teaching spoken Russian.

There will be only a few students who wish to study the literary Russian language to acquire the ability to read Russian authors in the original, appreciate the beauty of the language and its particular construction, or to study this language from the point of view of pure linguistics.

In the third class, there will be even fewer studying the language for translating English authors into Russian. In a language so full of idiomatic expression, it would require more than advanced or even graduate study to acquire the facility of translating English authors adequately. In my opin-

ion, only students born and reared in Russian-speaking families, or those who have lived for considerable time in Russian-speaking countries, may possess the feeling of the language and thus qualify for such studies.

From the foregoing analysis it would seem that there is not too much demand for the teaching of Russian. But there is still one more category to analyze—the reading of scientific Russian publications, which, in my opinion, is the most important of all at this time. Generally, the student's ambition is to acquire a working knowledge of the language. Faculties assume this same point of view by requiring a reading knowledge of two modern languages for any advanced degree. Taking into consideration the fact that the center of gravity for scientific research on the continent of Europe has gone from Germany to the East, the importance of teaching the reading of scientific Russian is more and more apparent. At the present time more than thirty-three per cent of all foreign technical data published is in Russian. At their peak, the Germans published only forty per cent. Since science students consider foreign languages as a tool in their future study or research, it is easy to understand why the study of Russian is gaining such popularity in the United States, reflected in the number of universities and colleges including this language in their curriculum.

Do we have a method of teaching young scientists to use the Russian language in their work? The answer will probably be *yes* based upon the method of teaching German, French or other modern languages. Usually this begins with the study of elementary language for five or ten credit hours, followed by a course or two of intermediate or advanced Russian. Before a student can study scientific Russian he is required to have at least fifteen hours of credit in elementary and intermediate Russian. Is this necessary? The answer undoubtedly would be *yes* if based on the old fashioned concept of language teaching in which the student proceeds in the classical manner through grammar, vocabulary building, translation and composition. Is this the only system that works? Did anyone attempt other systems or try to create new methods themselves? The Army did.

Having the privilege of being associated for several years with Battelle Memorial Institute which is organized for scientific and industrial research, I am greatly influenced by its methods and approaches in research. At Battelle, first there is established the plan or scheme for the procedure, based chiefly on existing bibliographic data. Then begins the creation of the method itself, always attempting to give a new interpretation to all phenomena, keeping in mind the final requirements of the research. It occurred to me, since no method of teaching scientific Russian seems to exist and the development of such a method may be only in its experimental stage, why not apply these principles of scientific research to the creation of a new method of teaching scientific language? Everything is streamlined in our modern times. The trend of our generation is mass production, resulting

in a tremendous saving of time and manpower. Why should we not apply these principles to teaching? Only by attempting new approaches may we find something new. Why consider the old methods as sacred standards which should not be superseded? I have attempted to teach scientific Russian directly without any preliminary study of elementary Russian currently required by universities. It has worked. I have had the pleasure recently of having one of my students pass the Russian examination for his Ph.D. in chemical engineering at Ohio State University.

Since negative criticism is iniquitous and only constructive suggestions indicating the remedy for the prevailing situation are worthy of consideration, I shall give an outline of the method of teaching which I have evolved on the basis of Battelle research methods to fit the needs of our engineers. The principal criterion of the success of this method is the ability of the engineers to read scientific papers in their field of interest. The factors I have had to consider are: saving of time, flexibility of program to cover many branches of basic and applied science, a minimum of strain during the lessons since they were given after an eight-hour work day, maintaining a constant interest in the classroom (my course does not give credit—only knowledge). With these factors in mind, this is how the teaching was organized:

My elementary course in scientific Russian begins with an introduction or short review of the evolution of the Russian language, from the times of Cyrill and Methodius through the Tartar, German and French influences, up to the current Soviet usages. The history of Russian science of the past 150 years is reviewed, emphasizing the scientific progress of the last two decades. Such an introduction immediately arouses the interest of the students, most of them already scientists in their own right. They realize, moreover, the possibilities resulting from the reading knowledge of the Russian language. Next the alphabet is given in comparison with Greek and Latin. The particular Russian sounds are explained on the basis of the old Slavic alphabet. Fundamental grammatical forms are explained in comparison with the English language. Translations of short phrases including words directly connected with science follow immediately. Students must copy the phrases in their workbook at each lesson and make the translation at home. In four to five hours of drill, students acquire a thorough knowledge of the alphabet and vocabulary of forty to fifty words permitting the translation of easy phrases. After six or eight hours longer phrases and short passages are given for translation. These translations are arranged in such a way that new words comprise only ten to twenty-five per cent of the total. Generally, the translations contain approximately fifty to sixty words in the beginning and 100 to 150 later on. Any new grammatical forms encountered are explained in class, always in comparison with English, Latin, French and German, which makes it much easier for the student to

comprehend the peculiarities of Russian grammar. Such teaching reduces to a minimum the committing to memory of large numbers of words and the drilling on grammatical forms, irregular verbs, pronouns and the like. The repetition of basic scientific words in the translations made induces the students to remember them without too much difficulty. After the elementary part of the scientific Russian course, which ordinarily takes four months (September–December), the students begin to translate passages from textbooks of physics for Soviet secondary schools. The subjects of passages are changed every lesson to allow the student to acquire the maximum number of words in different fields. All translations are made at home with the help of the dictionary. Each student underlines the words which he has to look up. If twenty-five per cent new words are added and the student underlines thirty-five per cent, the next time I include a smaller percentage of new words. In this manner, full control of the progress of the students is maintained. After five or six months, each student, or group of students, begins to translate original Soviet articles and treatises in his field of interest from contemporary Russian scientific books or periodicals. Articles have to be chosen beforehand and arranged in progression according to their difficulty. In the eight months of the course (September to April), most of the students are able to read fairly well all Russian scientific publications in the field of their interest—that is, they possess a good working knowledge of scientific Russian language, which is the goal of my method. I have no doubts at all that such teaching could be successfully used in universities and colleges. Since the necessary textbooks, reader and other instructional aids are nonexistent at present, I produce them myself, which takes a tremendous amount of time and work. I expect to organize all this material for publication but lack of time has thus far prevented my doing so. Considering the importance of Russian scientific reading in the promotion of the study of this language, which is the goal of our organization, it seems that much greater emphasis should be placed on the problems involving methods and educational aids.

We have a National Committee for this purpose, but it seems to have been quite inactive during past years. As far as I know the only recommendations proposed were for the use of several Soviet scientific publications, some of them not too applicable for educational purposes.

As I have indicated previously, after determining the final goal of the activity of any enterprise, a detailed scheme of the future work should be drawn; on the basis of such a scheme the systematic work of actual preparation of methods and educational aids may begin. Such work is not a one-man job. It requires the cooperation of the whole organization and persons affiliated with it—specifically the cooperation of science teachers of Russian origin—or the cooperation of someone proficient in the Russian language with teachers of the Russian language itself. Only then can these very

important problems in the teaching of the scientific Russian language be solved.

Let us take these problems seriously and begin to work.

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[This paper was presented at the Slavonic and Eastern European Languages Section Meeting, Central States Modern Language Teachers Association, Columbus, Ohio, May 10, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

A ROMANTICISM IN
ANNETTE VON DROSTE-HÜLSHOFF

PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN BRAZIL

RUSSIAN TEXTBOOKS

ITALIAN LITERATURE IN 1947

L FRENCH AND SPANISH-AMERICAN
ITERARY HIGHLIGHTS OF 1947

The Use of Advertisements in the Teaching of Functional Spanish

WE have heard some very scholarly and worth while papers during the sessions of the past two days here at the Second Foreign Language Conference of Northwestern State College. Several of the speakers have referred to, and some have emphasized, the cultural values of Spanish. I have no quarrel with this view (in fact, I am in sympathy with it), but I feel that the teaching of Spanish from a cultural point of view can best be done at a college rather than at a high school level.

My experience as a student and teacher of Spanish during the years since 1918 indicates that the high school student of this region is more likely to come into contact with, and be interested in, the spoken Spanish of Mexico and the other Spanish speaking republics to the south of us than Castillian.

A recent issue of *La Prensa* of San Antonio, Texas states that one person in each five in Texas is of Mexican origin and that in San Antonio the ratio is one in three. *The Beaumont Enterprise* of Beaumont, Texas says in a recent feature story that 140,000 Mexican citizens will enter the United States this summer to help harvest crops of fruits, vegetables, cotton and sugar beets and that these transient workers will remain in the United States about six months. This is an annual affair. Some of these people, especially the *troqueros* or crew chiefs, will be bi-lingual; but a great many of the crewmen and their families, who will accompany them, will not be. I know from first-hand experience that the person who knows even just a few words of "school Spanish" will in most cases be welcomed like "money from home" by these too often bewildered and homesick people.

Now to the meat of our subject. How can the high school teacher help equip his students with a practical working vocabulary that will be useful to the students and the Spanish speaking visitors? A partial answer is as follows: commercial advertisements supply readily available, and usually free, "textbooks" for the building of this vocabulary.

Most manufacturers of products today print the directions for the use and care of their products in more than one language, usually on opposite pages or in parallel columns of the same page in their booklets of directions. If only two languages are used, they are usually English and Spanish.

Last year the Calcasieu Parish School Board bought a new International Farm-All Tractor to be used in mowing the weeds from the campuses of the parish schools. When the machine came to DeQuincy, the Spanish class

students were greatly interested in trying to read the directions for the care of the machine which were printed in English and Spanish on opposite sides of the same card. They discovered that, by reading the directions in English first and getting the idea of the context, they could read the Spanish directions very well. These were first year students.

Some of the most valuable items of advertising material in my possession are some color charts issued by the Marine Paint and Varnish Company of New Orleans. They issue the usual color charts showing the colors of the various paints manufactured by them. Theirs are different from any others I have seen in that they give the Spanish and English name for the color. The directions for the use of the paint are also in both languages. By using these charts, students learn to associate the Spanish word with the actual color rather than with the corresponding English name for the color. This, I think, helps to promote thinking in Spanish.

Students from homes where vegetable gardens are planted will find it interesting and worth while to save the paper packets in which garden seeds are packed. These envelopes have the pictures of lettuce, tomatoes, carrots and various other vegetables portrayed in such attractive colors that even a city dweller feels inspired to rush right out and plant a garden. For the student of Spanish, however, these envelopes have other values. Most of the seedpackers give the name of the vegetable in both English and Spanish and sometimes other languages. I can think of no better way for the student to learn to associate the name of the vegetable with the actual vegetable than to study some of the vividly colored packages.

The boy who received a new Winchester .22 rifle for Christmas was delighted to find that the directions for the care of the gun were printed in both English and Spanish and that after having read the directions in English he could also read them fairly well in Spanish. Thus he readily and painlessly added some new words to his Spanish vocabulary.

The girl who buys McCall dress patterns for sewing finds that the directions are given in English, French and Spanish. She, with a little effort, soon learns to read these simple directions in not two but three languages.

At DeQuincy the school subscribes for the Sunday edition of *La Prensa* of San Antonio, Texas. *La Prensa* prints the usual commercial advertising found in any city daily. These advertisements are frequently illustrated with pictures of the articles for sale. They also contain the Spanish equivalents of such expressions as "no down payments," "buy on credit," "easy terms" and "free delivery."

Catherine and Lorene of the second year class were interested in discovering that the Spanish speaking girls of the southwest were also thinking about new dresses as the Easter season drew near. They found that *La Prensa* carried advertisements for the San Antonio department stores offering the same dresses that English language papers advertised for these

stores. The only difference was that what the English speaking girls called "Easter dresses" their Spanish speaking sisters called *vestidos de Pascua*.

Besides the advertising there are other sections of *La Prensa* that offer teaching material. Most of the students at DeQuincy read a Sunday paper of some kind, with special attention to the sport pages and the comic section. On Monday they enjoy trying to read in Spanish the accounts of the same ball game, wrestling match or boxing bout that they read in an English paper the day before. Tarzan can be just as exciting in Spanish as in English if one knows enough Spanish to follow the story or if one has read the account of his exploits the day before in English. Having the gist of the story in mind helps to read the Spanish without translating it word for word.

These are but a few examples of a wealth of material which will help to make Spanish both interesting and functional.

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[The Second Foreign Language Conference of Northwestern State College took place at Natchitoches, Louisiana, May 2-3, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

FILMS FOR SPANISH CLASSES

The November catalog of Coronet Instructional Films lists five films of interest to Spanish teachers. They are: *Rural Life in Mexico*, *Schools of Mexico*, *Hand Industries of Mexico*, *Panama* and *Jack's Visit to Costa Rica*. The last is considered suitable only for young students. These are 16 mm. sound motion pictures in color, the last two also available in black and white. Write to Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois, for more information.

Uses of Recording and Listening Equipment

THE purpose of this paper is indicated with reasonable clarity in the title. There are described in detail some of the techniques for the use of recording and listening equipment which have been worked out at the Lake Forest Academy. In discussions of this subject with friends and colleagues a look of cool disinterest oftentimes glazes their eyes. Many such conversations clearly indicate that this look expresses a conscious or subconscious fear that the "machine" will in some way gain the upper hand in language work, that the teacher will become its servant—before their eyes rises the vivid picture of Goethe's *Der Zauberlehrling*.

I should like to sidetrack that reaction right now! My colleagues' fear of technological unemployment is not justified, nor is the teacher mastered by the machine; he does not become a mere technician because he uses a recorder and playback machines in his work. This equipment has the same purpose as a textbook, a blackboard, comfortable desks and the like; it increases the efficiency of the educational work being carried on—in this case language teaching.

Equipment. At the Lake Forest Academy we have two recorders equipped with extra turntables plugging directly into the amplifier of the recorder. This arrangement enables us to cut copies of master records silently. The recorders may also be used as playback machines in the classroom. Auxiliary to this equipment we have a desk microphone, a standing microphone and a listening-room equipped with six playback machines, designed for use with earphones exclusively and so constructed that our homemade records will last as long as possible. This equipment very comfortably serves a language department offering four modern languages and Latin with an average enrollment of 110–125 students.

The need for the standing microphone in recording dialogs, short talks and the like before the class is obvious. The value of the desk-type microphone may require some explanation. After the introduction of the class to the written form of the language, much of the recording of individual work is of little value to the class as a whole. Therefore one is apparently faced with the choice of wasting the time of the class as a whole, or of wasting the instructors' time recording the individuals' work outside of the regular class schedule. We solve this problem by assigning the class reading or writing designed to keep it busy for a time sufficient to enable the instructor to complete the individual recordings planned for any given day. The desk

microphone, which has a long cord, is passed by the students from desk to desk while the instructor runs the recorder and changes the records. The class is not disturbed by this procedure and time is not wasted. The correction of records may require work with the student outside of class, but the equivalent can often be achieved if the student compares his record with a correct one available in the listening-room. This is one of the most valuable aspects of a listening-room—correct copies of recordings, which one plans that individual students shall make, can be filed there.

The listening-room is the necessary complement of the recorders, as the use of the latter would be seriously limited were such a room not available. Before setting up the listening-room we often found it necessary, when aural-oral work was assigned outside of class, to cut a recording for each student; as the program grew this became an intolerable burden. Now we need make at the most six copies (one for each machine) and in many instances fewer, dependent on class size and the use to which the record is to be put. We have found that after a proper introduction or orientation continuous supervision of such a room is not necessary. The listening-room is used by the students only in connection with work assigned outside of class—that is, in connection with "homework." The use of the listening-room never cuts into classroom time.

To reduce the cost of the program we use cheap, paper-backed records. The reproduction is clear and the life of such records is sufficient for their purpose. We use sapphire cutting needles in preference to steel. Although their original cost is much greater, they can be resharpened at least twice, and the resultant recordings are of a far superior quality. We likewise use permanent sapphire needles in our playback machines. The recording program—amortization of equipment, purchase of needles, and the like—is financed by a small fee similar in theory, though not in amount, to the laboratory fees in the sciences.

Before mentioning the specific uses to which we put this equipment, two general values inherent in the use of recordings should be mentioned. Through the use of recordings it is possible to give the students the experience of hearing various speakers. Other members of the department and foreign-speaking members of the community are easily induced to cooperate. Second, the instructor will find in grading oral work from records that he receives a far more balanced picture of the student's performance. When listening to a student in the classroom, we are trying to remember his errors in order to correct them. As a result they stand out fiercely in contrast with the remainder of his work. When listening to a recording in his office, the instructor hears the errors in relation to the whole.

One further point—experience over several years with this equipment indicates that its primary value is not that through it one may turn out students who speak the language fluently, but rather that the oral-aural

approach is a very useful technique in gaining whatever objective or combination of objectives one sets for any class. Thus the arguments for and against teaching a speaking knowledge, which have raged in the professional and popular journals in recent years, are in no way decisive regarding the value of recording and listening equipment in language teaching. This paper will show that the equipment can be used equally effectively in teaching a reading knowledge, a knowledge of grammar, a speaking knowledge or aural comprehension.

Dialogs. The use of records greatly simplifies a completely oral-aural introduction to the language. With records one can successfully assign specific homework during the early period—a necessary feature at the secondary school level. We introduce the students to the foreign language through a series of dialogs. For each dialog the student receives a mimeographed transliteration into English so that the instructor need not spend any of his time explaining the meaning of the sounds. After a standard mimicry-memorization introduction in class, the student is sent to the listening-room where he finds a recording of the dialog with which to complete his assignment. The recording is arranged as follows. (a) the dialog is given complete; (b) the dialog is repeated without the comments of the first speaker; (c) the dialog is repeated without the words of the second speaker. Thus the student completes his memorization and, using parts (b) and (c), checks his ability to reproduce either part of the dialog by adding the necessary speeches while playing the record. Such an add-a-part recording may be used at the beginning of class the next day as a rapid check to discover whether further classroom drill is necessary. Calling on each student to fill in one or two of the blank pauses, the instructor acquires an accurate picture of the preparation of the class as a whole.

After introducing the students to the written form of the language, this method of instruction is continued whenever material in the form of dialogs is being used. When the students have the text in the foreign language, however, only the add-a-part sections are necessary after satisfactory classroom introduction.

The students are required to record such dialogs. The records are graded and returned to them, and by comparison with the correct version in the listening-room the students can make the necessary corrections in their performance. Occasionally a re-recording is necessary and occasionally the instructor must work with an individual outside of class, but on the whole the listening-room takes care of this problem.

Here I would repeat that the grading of recorded material—be it a dialog, a memorized poem, a short talk, reading aloud, or the like—is infinitely more accurate than is the grading of such material as it is presented in the classroom. My only explanation is that, in listening to a student in the classroom, the instructor is straining to catch and remember

every error for later correction. As a result the errors are in most cases influential out of all proportion in the final grade. However when one plays back a recording, the errors appear in relation to the whole. As the other men at Lake Forest have had the same experience, we now pay little if any attention to the work of a student as it is being recorded. Once the student has overcome his original "mike-fright," this attitude on the part of the instructor removes much of the pressure normally felt by the student in this sort of work.

Reading. In introducing students to the written form of the language we use records as follows. The printed material being used is recorded and the student trains himself to read *with* the record in the listening-room. Guided by the record he avoids giving the English value to the literal symbols of the foreign language, and he is able to pick out with accuracy those words, phrases or sentences where he is unable to read with the record—that is, the points that give him trouble. These spots can be rapidly straightened out in class. As an extension of this, both for training outside the classroom and for testing in the classroom, we make records of reading material in add-a-part fashion—leaving a blank for every other sentence. By reading the omitted sentences within the predetermined time limit, the students increase the fluency of their oral reading in the listening-room, and by playing such a record in the classroom, one can very accurately and very rapidly check a whole class' oral reading skill on any given piece of material. In this way a student is trained to read without stopping and stumbling, which rapidly develops his feeling for the rhythm of the language.

At other times one may record the students as they read from the printed page. In correcting such a record the instructor marks each mistake in the student's own book and returns it to him with the record. If a re-take is necessary, the instructor can in this way make a quick and accurate comparison with the previous recording. With few exceptions the student can eradicate his errors by comparing his own record with the correct version available in the listening-room.

After a class has developed confidence in its ability to read from the printed page, we often bring an add-a-part recording of advance material to class and play it through once, the class reading the omitted sentences in unison. The instructor can pick those sentences which give trouble and work them over with the class before a second playing, when individual responses are graded. Obviously one may record in this manner material not previously covered and thus check sight reading.

The grading procedure of any of these add-a-part exercises in the classroom is simple. The class roll is written on the board and lines drawn across the board. The instructor turns on the record and with his back to the class brings the chalk down opposite a name. An answer is either right or wrong—generally indicated by a check or a cross. As each individual in the class

must keep close track of the material being tested—memorized dialog, reading material or, as we shall see later, grammar exercise—the problem of attention and morale is solved. Knowing that he is to be tested in this manner normally results in far more adequate preparation on the part of the student. No student enjoys seeing a succession of zeros march across the board opposite his name.

Grammar exercises. Having corrected the written version of any one of the various available grammatical exercises—fill-in, change-the-tense, connect-the-clauses, pluralize, substitute-pronouns-for-nouns, translation and others—a record can be used very effectively to impress on the class the necessity of becoming so familiar with the material that they can do the exercise directly from the book without reference to the corrected paper. On the day after the correction of such an exercise the following record is played in the classroom: "Please open the grammar to page _____, exercise _____ and follow the directions [pause]." The voice on the record pauses briefly, after calling the number of each exercise, to allow for completion by a student until all the sentences have been completed. The instructor moves his chalk up and down the class roll on the board, stopping opposite a name as each number rings out. Experience shows that something better than twice the normal number of responses a minute are gained in this way, that classroom discipline is perfect, that preparation is above average. Obviously practice records of this sort may be placed in the listening-room. A further advantage is that the teacher's judgment of the amount of time to be allotted for each answer is not affected by any temporary condition in the classroom nor by any of the numerous maneuvers by which students indicate that in another second or two they will have the correct answer. The students on their side recognize the inexorability of 78 r.p.m. and devote their entire attention to bringing forth the required responses. Lastly, a file of such records in the classroom enables the teacher to give two and three minute reviews at any time by merely playing the correct record on the playback machine.

One may also effectively add aural comprehension to the assignment of such grammar exercises as "homework." When assigning translation from English into the foreign language (or any other of the varied grammatical exercises), the instructor may record a correct version of the sentences and put this record in the listening-room. After the students have completed the written work, they go to the listening-room and correct same from the recording. The material should be recorded at normal speaking speed so that the student, having to listen "intensively" (in contrast to the "extensive" listening of most aural comprehension—compare following section), develops his ability to follow closely aural material in the foreign language. This exercise is a time-saver as a means of correcting exercises from the grammar and fits very neatly into the pattern of work described in the preceding paragraph.

Aural comprehension. Here we have borrowed from the tests worked out by the Investigation of the Teaching of A Second Language at the University of Chicago. We are developing a series of two to five-minute aural comprehension records for various levels. The tests themselves are mimeographed in English and usually consist of questions with multiple-choice answers. The making of such records presents a particularly good opportunity to make use of a variety of voices. The series is so designed that a student who retains his corrected tests will have a fairly good collection of *Kulturkunde*—biographical material, historical material, geographical material and the like. Thus we hope to make the aural comprehension work a source of knowledge of German things and people. A similar series is being developed for each of the other languages. While these records are usually played only in the classroom, we do occasionally put one or two on file in the listening-room and permit the first-year students to practice listening to them.

Teaching grammar. Possibly the most valuable contribution of aural teaching will be in this field. Those grammatical concepts which can be taught as automatic patterns should lend themselves to the oral-aural approach as rapidly as successful exercises and techniques are worked out. Essentially this is a matter of trial and error at two levels. First, is a given concept in grammar amenable to oral-aural treatment and second, what exercises work? My own work in this field is at present more plentifully studded with failures and errors than with successes.

A few examples will clarify the point. In two recent first-year classes, prepositions, their use and meaning were presented by sentences of various sorts, which were committed to memory via the ear. The students had not yet been introduced to the written form of the language. There was no discernible improvement in the ability of these classes to use the correct case or form after a preposition, and it is doubtful whether the prepositions are particularly amenable to this treatment; the oral-aural patterns concerned are not strongly enough repetitive to become second nature to the student without the admixture of visual and other aids.

Last fall the students in German 1 were presented with a list of some 250 nouns chosen from the books and other materials which the class was to use in the course of the year. This list was in English and included only those plurals which I felt the students should know actively. The list was recorded in German with the correct form of the definite article prefixed to each noun, and copies were made for each student as we did not then have the listening-room. These were assigned in groups of ten to fifteen a day, and from the records the students were expected to learn the *der*, *die* or *das* with each noun plus the selected plurals. Whatever meanings were picked up were considered "gravy," as they would learn these in the ordinary course of events when the nouns appeared in the dialogs and books. Influenced by experience in teaching gender from printed lists to students,

I mixed the masculine, feminine and neuter nouns. The results were good but not of a permanent nature. Here the error, in contrast with the first example, seems to be at the second level mentioned above—that is, an error at the level of technique. Had the nouns been arranged in strongly repetitive groups—*der Lehrer, der Arbeiter, der Schüler* and the like, or all feminines in *-ung*—I feel certain that the results would have been of a more permanent nature. With the nouns grouped in such patterns, while mixing them on tests, I hope for better results another year. As the students had not been exposed to the written form of the language, in testing, the nouns were recorded without the definite article, and after each noun came a pause sufficient to allow the student to repeat the noun with the correct form of *der, die* or *das*.

The same technique is applied to the teaching of the principal parts of the strong verbs. The verbs are arranged in the repetitive patterns afforded by one of the various classifications. Only after learning them orally is the student expected to learn the spelling. It would seem that recording and listening equipment make it possible to introduce and test such grammar units orally as a useful step precedent to requiring skill with the written form.

Success can be recorded in training students to place at the end of their clauses the past participle of the compound tenses or the dependent infinitive. Some of the introductory dialogs are so arranged that they can be put into the present-perfect or past-perfect tense. With the transliteration into English following the German word order, students memorize the material without thinking and the pattern is one which is rapidly acquired. In fact they usually accept this arrangement as normal before it occurs to them to ask why. Curiously enough, when first asked to write in German, the students will, if they do not read their work aloud, revert to the English order in these tenses; on reading them aloud they immediately recognize the error. The aural and vocal organs can be trained without the eye and hand being affected. But the eye and hand will follow the oral-aural pattern—if the student will check his written work by reading it aloud! I have never had any experience to indicate that the converse is true.

Thus grammatical concepts acquired aurally are held more surely and more permanently than those learned visually. However, the material taught in this manner must be of a type which can be so arranged that a strongly repetitive pattern is presented to the aural and vocal organs.

Conclusion. This paper has presented a selection from the many uses to which we at Lake Forest have put our recording and listening equipment. The time necessary for recording is not great and is easily made up in the greater efficiency gained and in the somewhat decreased paper work. To sum up the advantages: (1) students may successfully be required to com-

plete specific outside assignments in oral-aural work; (2) the students using records of all sorts in the listening-room outside of class are exposed to far more spoken German than would otherwise be possible; (3) classroom efficiency in certain types of work is greatly increased and time is saved; (4) development of aural comprehension can be put on a regularized basis; (5) the students' *Sprachgefühl* (essentially an oral-aural matter) is more highly developed; and (6) the work with records lends a variety to the program which tends to increase student interest. And withal, these mechanical devices in no way replace the teacher, he remains their master.

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[This paper, with minor changes, was read before the German Section of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, April 26, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

RECENT MEETINGS

The New Jersey College for Women, Rutgers University, sponsored an *Institute for Teachers of French* February 14. Organized to foster closer relations between high school and college teachers, the program featured talks by Henri C. Olinger, Maurice E. Coindreau, John B. Whitton and Arthur V. Berger, as well as a round-table discussion and an art exhibit.

The forty-second annual meeting of the *Tennessee Philological Association* took place February 20-21, at the University of Chattanooga. About twenty papers were presented on widely varied topics.

HEART OF PARIS was the principal attraction of the March 3rd meeting of the *Chicago French Film Society*. Also shown was the French documentary film LETTER FROM PARIS, distributed by the International Film Bureau, Inc. The April 7th program will include MONTREAL, DANS LE MASSIF CENTRAL, PÊCHE EN MÉDITERRANÉE and CHANTS POPULAIRES NO. 1.

Teaching Spanish in a Small High School

IN this brief discussion I shall attempt to present the point of view of a teacher who has taught Spanish for many years in a small high school. Okolona High School is situated in a town of approximately 2500 inhabitants. It belongs, however, to the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges and was selected in 1938 as one of the three Mississippi schools in the group of thirty-three Southern schools in the Southern Association Study during the years 1938 through 1941.

There are advantages and disadvantages to be considered in teaching Spanish in the small high school. One of the disadvantages is that of having many duties which conflict with a full time planning for the language classes. As the enrollment in the Okolona High School is about 125 in grades nine through twelve, the number of pupils in the elective subjects is usually small, and the language teacher has to serve in other subject fields, be—as it were—a jack-of-all-trades. My work, for example, includes three language classes and two history classes, each an hour long, directing a club and sponsoring one class for which I must coach a play, keep the records, plan a banquet or direct a commencement program. Other responsibilities include routine duty service, faculty committee work, and custodianship of the high school free textbooks.

The Mississippi educational regulations require five in a class to justify its organization. In a school like Okolona it is sometimes hard to register a class of five because each pupil is allowed few electives, the faculty is small and schedules conflict; in addition there is the competition of vocational subjects such as the commercial course and Home Economics which appeal because of their immediate practical value. Accordingly only one modern language is offered in this school, and that is Spanish. At one time it was suggested that French be taught instead of Spanish. After due consideration of the fact that, besides its cultural value, Spanish is one of the two most important languages of the Western Hemisphere and offers more opportunities for its practical use in this hemisphere than any other foreign language, it was retained in the curriculum.

Usually my Spanish classes average about fifteen in Spanish I, and from seven to eleven in Spanish II. But occasionally they have dropped too low to meet the Mississippi requirement. To keep the subject in the curriculum and to give an opportunity to the few who wanted the language, I have several times combined the first and second year classes and have instructed

them both during the same period. The classes were kept busy by allowing pupil direction in one group, while I instructed the other group. Pupils displayed keen interest, initiative and a sense of responsibility, and those continuing with Spanish in college succeeded in their work.

Another problem in teaching Spanish in the small school is the lack of modern equipment such as records, films, sound recordings and abundant supplies of reading material. But in spite of the disadvantages, training boys and girls in Spanish can be very interesting. As they are usually a small and select group, they can be given individual attention.

The teacher must also keep always in mind that as Spanish is an elective subject its enrollment may drop too low for a class in the school. The instructor must exercise skill and ingenuity in methods of teaching, never indulging in threatening tactics or high pressure methods to obtain results. Spanish must be fun to the pupils, and interest must be maintained in it, or probably there will be no one wanting the subject. Fortunately, we Spanish teachers now have such a variety of sources from which to draw that providing stimuli for the purpose of interesting pupils is not a problem, but a pleasure.

Reading for comprehension, conversation, the use of Spanish songs, the carrying on of correspondence with boys and girls of Spanish-speaking countries and the fun of a fiesta are attempts on my part to motivate the language study and to avoid monotony in instruction. For introducing Spanish to beginners I find of extreme value the use of the "Phrase-and-Sentence Patterns-Spanish-Romantic Series" by Dr. A. I. Roehm, formerly head of the Modern Language Department of George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. As he states in his manual,

"these panels provide for a vocabulary of 400 most common Spanish words organized into audio-visual dialog-exercises; and bring into play abundantly all the inflectional forms of the articles, pronouns, tenses, etc. and speed up the mastery of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, and develop the habit of thinking in Spanish."

One of my objectives in teaching Spanish is to train the pupils to have a sympathetic attitude and a feeling of appreciation for a culture other than their own. Some of my former pupils who were in the war seemed to reflect this objective in the messages they sent to me from overseas. One of the boys sent a message from Italy saying that his Spanish helped him get along with the Italians. From a boy in the Madeira Islands came a card in which he expressed an appreciation of Spanish in helping to understand the Portuguese. But my most interesting letter came from a marine who had gone through the horrors of Tarawa and Saipan, and who later had been stationed on Saipan. This boy sent me a copy of the alphabet used there and compared it with the Spanish, claiming that his Spanish made it easier

for him to pick up many of the native words. This was an agreeable surprise because the boy had been an indifferent pupil. He repeated the first year course and told me as he walked out of the class at the end of the session, "You won't see me in a Spanish class again." But the following fall, there he was, taking second year Spanish. He struggled through the course without gaining much skill in pronunciation or conversation, but he succeeded in finishing with a fair degree of reading skill. I am truly glad that I did not discourage his entering the class. Another student, stationed in Panama, wrote a letter to my pupils, urging them to study and take advantage of their Spanish and stressing its value to him.

Before the war many of our pupils with no cultural background shunned a foreign language course; it appeared remote to their needs and interests. But during the war years there was an increase of the enrollment in foreign languages. The world has been brought closer to the boy or girl belonging to a tenant farm family because father, brother, uncle or friend served overseas—maybe in Italy, or in one of the Latin Americas, or elsewhere. The pupil has felt the contact of a world beyond his own, and his horizon has been broadened. Our country has ceased its policy of isolation, and no longer should there be an indifference to a foreign language. In this change of view toward foreign languages as reflected by pupils, we see the changing nations of the world brought closer together, and we see the need for mutual understandings which must be adequately provided for. That one of our best means for understandings comes through communication stresses the need for training in foreign languages. In a small school like Okolona there is an attempt to meet that need somewhat by instruction in the Spanish language—the language to foster "the good neighbor policy," "to cement hemispheric solidarity" and "to give an insight into the lasting influence of Spain in our hemisphere, and an appreciation of its contribution to our culture."

If in teaching Spanish I can give to high school pupils some acquaintance with the Spanish language and literature, some understanding of Spanish civilization and culture, a sympathetic attitude toward Spanish character and comprehension of Spanish influence in America and if I can lead them "to discover Spain in America," then I, as a Spanish teacher, may in a small way contribute to the theme of this conference, "Foreign Languages for Living in One World."

ZAINA GLASS

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[This speech was read at the Northwestern State College Foreign Language Conference, Natchitoches, Louisiana, May 2-3, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

A Look at ASTP as Student and Teacher

THE arguments for and against the intensive language method developed for the Army Specialized Training Program have filled not only pages and pages of our professional journals; they have also spread into the popular magazines. The interesting thing to me about all these articles is that I have not yet seen one written by a *teacher* who himself had studied a new language by the ASTP method. Perhaps my having studied two languages and taught two others according to ASTP principles may justify my throwing this additional fuel on the flames of ASTP controversy.

In the spring of 1944 I was lent by one of the American voluntary relief agencies to UNRRA for a year's service as a relief worker in the UNRRA Balkan Mission. Before going overseas I studied both Modern Greek and Serbo-Croatian by the ASTP method for two months at the UNRRA Training Center, near Washington, where the texts for those two languages, since published by Henry Holt and Company, were written and first tried out. Each language was under the supervision of an American trained in linguistics; classes were limited to eight students each with a native speaker as a guide; and the classes met for two hours a day. After only twelve of the thirty lesson units that are included in the regular ASTP courses I left for Egypt, spending the next ten months in work among some 25,000 Yugoslav refugees in an UNRRA camp on the Egyptian desert. Proof of the value of those twelve lessons of Serbo-Croatian lies in the fact that after two months among the Yugoslavs I carried on all my daily business in Serbo-Croatian without an interpreter, and within another month I myself had begun to serve as an occasional interpreter for the British commandant of the camp in which I worked!

Since returning to the United States last summer I have been using the original ASTP textbook in one Spanish class and a civilian adaptation of the method in first-year French.

Now, what is so new or different about the ASTP method? To judge by the articles describing it in the popular magazines you would think nobody had ever taught foreign languages properly before the War Department took over. On the other hand, many of the articles in our professional journals give the impression that, apart from the greatly increased number of hours in class, the reduction in the size of classes, the rigid selection of students and a special wartime motivation, ASTP contained nothing that successful teachers had not been doing all along.

Between the starry-eyed eulogists and the grim-faced opponents of ASTP, I myself find little to choose. There *is* something more to ASTP than the mere application of the old grammar-translation method in larger doses to smaller classes of better students. At the same time I can see nothing fundamental in the ASTP method that Otto Jespersen, that great Danish master of us all, did not describe or anticipate more than forty years ago in his little book on *How to Teach a Foreign Language*.

Jespersen recognized then that learning a foreign language is largely a matter of transforming grammatical principles into habit patterns so that we learn to think with a new set of linguistic habits. That basic premise led naturally to the patient, thorough, direct approach to language teaching that he describes in his book. I hesitate to call it the direct method because that phrase has become a negative thing for so many teachers, implying to them the dogmatic exclusion of every word of the native language from the classroom and little else. The direct method as Jespersen describes it, and as de Sauzé has used it so successfully in the Cleveland school system in this country, is something far more than that.

It is still the best approach to language teaching if we recognize that you cannot make early spring peas get ripe the week after you plant the seed and you cannot learn to use a foreign language by going to class three times a week for two years. The direct method has long suffered from unfair comparison with the usual grammar-translation method, which does give you the illusion of "covering" a foreign language in a short length of time. To prove that this is pure illusion you have only to let any native speaker try to start a simple conversation with any college sophomore who has completed the ordinary two-year language requirement. I can teach my students the *rules* for the use of the French object pronouns in one class hour. In order to transform those rules into habit patterns, so that they can actually *use* the French object pronouns in answer to my questions, I need two good weeks and a lot of luck. If we can ever get over the illusion that the direct method is unreasonably slow, perhaps we shall some day grow sufficiently in wisdom to start our pupils on their first foreign language in grammar school, really teaching them the language instead of rules about the language, and devoting the time that it requires to the subject.

The philosophy of the ASTP method rests on the same premise that underlies the direct method: we really learn a foreign language only when we assimilate grammatical principles and turn them into habits. The real contribution of ASTP to foreign-language teaching lies in its method of speeding up this assimilative process for older students. This is accomplished simply by reversing the usual order of language-learning, in which the student learns vocabulary and grammatical rules and then tries, algebra-fashion, to put his words together according to the rules. In the ASTP method the student begins by memorizing in class whole conversations

sentence by sentence, associating each sentence with its English equivalent, which is always found in an adjoining column on the same page of his textbook, and learning the proper pronunciation, rhythm and intonation at the same time he learns the words. Only after his mind is stocked with phrases of the foreign language, which he has learned to juggle orally by dint of intensive classroom repetition under the direction of a teacher who corrects his every mistake in pronunciation, does the student confront the grammatical principles that govern and explain what he has already learned.

The essence of the ASTP method is as simple as that. And yet this simple change in procedure makes a profound difference. As far as I am concerned, advocates and opponents of the method can argue theory with each other till they are blue in the face: I know the method works because I have tried it on myself.

The great merit of the method lies in its recognition that languages do not consist of grammar, vocabulary and idioms, each to be learned separately and put together like the elements of an algebra problem, but rather in its recognition that all language is idiomatic and that the way to learn the idiomatic language is to learn it, by heart, and then use grammar to organize what has been learned.

Let me hasten to add that the ASTP method is not foolproof. It provides no substitute for linguistic and pedagogical competence in either the textbook-writer or the teacher. This is a point at which I believe the linguists who developed and used the ASTP method have been exposed to deserving criticism. Their approach to language was purely that of the scientist studying linguistic phenomena without regard to cultural values. Deliberately ignoring any particular distinctions between good and bad usage, some of them regarded anything spoken by natives as acceptable. This attitude was reinforced occasionally by the fact that some of the young linguists who wrote the ASTP texts, knowing *linguistics* rather than the language they were dealing with, were completely and uncritically dependent on the native informants with whom they worked. Imagine the kind of English a non-English-speaking linguist might record if he relied on the usage of any stray American he might have picked up—especially if that American had been living abroad and in another language environment for the past twenty years! And yet the writer of one of the ASTP textbooks, knowing little of the language himself, depended largely on the usage of a foreign-born speaker who had lived in this country for a good twenty years.

In their effort to present grammar clearly and simply the ASTP textbook-writers at times made some genuinely good innovations, but their linguistic radicalism occasionally led them to absurdities. For example, in the original version of the Serbo-Croatian lessons the six cases of the noun were called "form 1," "form 2," "form 3," instead of nominative, genitive, dative and so on—and then in addition they were not listed in the conven-

tional order! Fortunately, before the book came out in print, iconoclastic rationalism yielded to common sense and the traditional names and order of the cases were restored.

Any language teacher who has taken even a casual glance at the advertising material he receives from textbook-publishers is aware of what ASTP and the war have done to textbooks. Just as the up-to-date textbook of fifteen years ago had to stress the reading approach (although carrying the assurance in the preface that it was flexible enough to be used with any method!), and just as this fashion gave way shortly before the war to thin little grammars of "*Basic French*" and "*Essential Spanish*," so all the new grammars today must have the words "Spoken" or "Conversational" somewhere in their titles. Everybody is adapting the ASTP method to the needs of civilian students. The disappointing thing to me is that in most of the adaptations I have seen so far the authors have *adapted* the essence of the ASTP method completely off into thin air. In one typical example the author even tells both student and teacher in his prefaces that the Spanish "situation" (a snappy new term for reading passage) is not to be memorized word for word. Thus he completely misses the essential point of the ASTP method—namely, learning connected sentences by heart before studying grammatical theory. I must say I agree with him in this particular instance; the reading passages in this book are not close enough to real conversation to be worth memorizing. Let me quote in English translation the first part of the Spanish "situation" in Lesson 1:

"Good morning, teacher."

"Good morning, students."

There are four students in the class. There is also a teacher. Among the students there are two boys and two girls. The two boys are John and Charles. The two girls are Mary and Virginia. The teacher is Mr. Martínez.

The students do not study in class. They learn the lesson at home. In class they answer the teacher's questions and write in the notebooks. Mr. Martínez explains the lessons.

One of the students is reading a book. The teacher asks: "What are you reading in the book?" The student answers: "I am reading the lesson." Then the teacher asks: "Do you not read the lesson at home?"

That is as good as the usual reading lesson in the usual first-year grammar, but it has nothing to do with ASTP.

Now, for contrast, let me quote one ASTP adaptation I have seen that does *not* miss the point of the ASTP method. Here is an English translation of the first lesson. (Notice, by the way, that in this book the French and English texts are given side by side so that the student may concentrate on *learning*, not on *deciphering*, the text.)

The Concierge: Good morning, sir.

John Hughes: Good morning, (madam).

The Concierge: Are you Mr. Hughes?

John Hughes: Yes, (madam,) I am Mr. Hughes.

The Concierge: How do you do, sir?

John Hughes: Very well, thank you. And you?

The Concierge: Well, thank you.

John Hughes: Do you speak English?

The Concierge: No, I do not speak English. But you speak French, don't you?

John Hughes: Yes, (madam), I speak French a little.

The Concierge: Here is a letter for you.

John Hughes: Thank you very much.

The Concierge: You are welcome, sir.

John Hughes: Good-bye, (madam).

The Concierge: Good-bye, sir.

I hardly need to comment on the difference. This is a real conversation, not a reading lesson. It is concise enough and genuine enough to make every phrase worth learning by heart, and it does not make you squirm with the consciousness that the author has written it to illustrate some grammatical rule.

While using this adaptation of the ASTP method in first-year French I have had an opportunity to compare it with the original ASTP textbook which I am using in my Spanish class. The French book is in every way an improvement over the original ASTP Spanish text. It is more concise and flexible, broader in scope, and more interesting to the students, in addition to being more attractively edited. Finally—and this is truly sensational—here at last is one grammar that does *not* promise in its preface to be all things to all teachers!

So much for what I believe is the major contribution of the ASTP method to language teaching. There is also a minor one that deserves some discussion. ASTP recognized the fact that the final authority in all questions of linguistic usage lies in the group who speak any given language as natives. To expect our students to imitate those of us who ourselves have had to learn the language we teach as a foreign tongue is like expecting a movie actor to learn a Southern accent not from Southerners but from, say, a New Yorker who had set himself up as a teacher of Southern accents. This does not by any means eliminate the need for native American teachers; the native American has a natural advantage in explaining the workings of the foreign language and in interpreting the foreign civilization to his fellow Americans. One of the weaknesses of the original ASTP method was its assumption that untrained foreign speakers or a set of phonograph records could take the place of a teacher. Both can only *supplement* the work of the teacher, particularly for high-school and college students.

How can this second contribution to language teaching be adapted to the situation in which most of us teachers in high schools and small colleges find ourselves? I have three suggestions. First, our colleges might offer fel-

lowships to foreign students who would come with the understanding that they would spend part of their time pursuing their own course of study and the rest of it assisting the foreign-language departments by serving as guides and, as it were, "source material" for the students studying their language. Second, those schools which could not afford this kind of program might well make one or more radio-phonograph-recorder combinations available to their language departments. This year at Guilford College I am using such a machine in four ways. Students are encouraged to take advantage of the opportunities it offers to listen to the numerous short-wave radio programs in French and Spanish (as well as some thirty other languages) that are available nowadays from both New York and overseas. Our machine (the commercial name is "Recordio" but this is not a paid advertisement!) will also record programs direct from the radio; I have been regularly making French and Spanish recordings from the short-wave broadcasts and then having my more advanced students listen to them over and over again. The fascination of such a thing for the advanced students has been great enough so far to make it practically unnecessary to do more than let the students know when a new recording is available. The third way we use this outfit, of course, is for the playing of regular language phonograph records made by native speakers and sold commercially. In my course this spring in advanced French pronunciation and diction the six records made by Jeanne Vidon Varney and issued by Walter Garwick, of Rye, New York, have been one of our chief sources of examples for every new phenomenon in French diction that the students study in their textbook. The fourth way we use the machine is to make individual recordings of each student's French so that he can measure his achievement and better study his mistakes. I cannot too strongly emphasize the value of a recording combination such as this one. A further use to which it could be put in colleges that offered fellowships to foreign students would be to have the foreign students record whatever might be wished from the various classroom textbooks. The possibilities here are almost unlimited, particularly if the institution manages to get foreign students who read their own language expressively.

For schools that could afford neither to offer fellowships to foreign students nor even to buy a radio-phonograph-recorder combination, there still remains the possibility of getting an inexpensive electric phonograph (already available in a great many schools) and building up a collection of commercially made foreign-language records. In this connection attention should be called to the fact that the first twelve units of the ASTP textbooks in twenty languages are already available on Vinylite records from Henry Holt and Company.

There is one conclusion that this year's experience has brought home forcibly to me: the effort to teach a beginning language course within our

usual college framework of three hours a week in class and six hours of outside preparation is doomed to failure, regardless of method. One might just as reasonably expect chemistry and biology teachers to work without laboratory sessions. The proportion should at least be reversed: six hours in class to three of outside preparation. The use of a proper adaptation of the ASTP method will expose the illusory nature of the progress we think we are making with the conventional grammar-translation methods, but ASTP will not enable us to grow early spring peas in one week. If we are to make any real improvement in our language teaching, we must by all means correct the notion wherever it exists that languages are made to be studied three times a week—or even five times a week—for two years.

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[This paper was read at the annual meeting of the Modern Language Section of the North Carolina Education Association, Asheville, North Carolina, March 28, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

NATIONAL FRENCH CONTEST

Groups interested in promoting the study of French are urged to make prizes and scholarships available to the winners of the National French Contest now in progress. It is sponsored by the American Association of Teachers of French for secondary-school students. Tentative plans for the 1948-49 contest call for participation by students at the college level. Inquiries should be directed to the National Committee Chairman, J. O. Embry, Southwestern, Memphis 12, Tennessee.

Foreign Languages in Teacher Training Institutions

A FOREIGN language requirement in a teacher training institution leads a precarious existence. In the last seventeen years at Southern Illinois Normal University the matter has aroused frequent periodic debates in curriculum committees and departmental meetings. Recently the College of Education voted a recommendation to remove the requirement from the general education program of their students. The matter has since been discussed in various groups from the university curriculum committee to the local chapter of the American Association of University Professors. It is in connection with these discussions that Dean Fair of the College of Education and I sent out a questionnaire to ascertain the status of the requirement in teachers colleges and colleges of education throughout the United States.

The questions we asked are:

- (1) What are your present foreign language requirements for the B.S. in Education degree or its equivalent?
- (2) Is any part of your foreign language requirement based on admission requirements (such as foreign language in high school)?
- (3) Do you make any exceptions to your foreign language requirements?
- (4) Are you contemplating any early change in this matter?

We sent these questions to 182 member institutions of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, using the 1946 Yearbook, and to 89 additional university colleges of education and other teacher educating institutions taken from Carter V. Good's *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*, classified under the heading, "Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, etc."

From these 271 questionnaires we received 252 replies. To these we added statements from the catalogs of sixteen of the institutions which failed to answer. That gave us 268 institutions to consider. Of these, however, fourteen were not usable since these institutions did not give a B. S. in Education or similar degree, or because they had no undergraduate teacher training program at all. The final returns are thus based on 254 institutions. Of these 194 reported no foreign language requirement of any sort; nine reported semi-requirements; ten, departmental requirements, and forty-one, a definite requirement for all students. Eighteen require foreign language for admission and twenty-eight listed possible exceptions to their

requirements. Twenty-one are contemplating some change in the matter.

In the mimeographed summary of our findings prepared by Dean Fair we marked separately the returns from the AATC group and the university group. That division was of interest to us locally but does not represent a true division into teachers colleges and colleges of education since a number of the latter are members of the AATC and are included in the first group, notably such institutions as Columbia Teachers College and the University of Minnesota College of Education.

As must be true in all questionnaires of this type the findings were not entirely clear in all cases and lend themselves to varying interpretations. Thus some colleges requiring foreign language were listed as requiring it for a degree or entrance credit, depending on how their replies were stated. Others gave a complicated system of substitutions depending on high school background, advice of guidance personnel and the like. This diversity is doubtless a sign of desirable experimentation and growth in our educational procedures. Some of the substitutions may be of interest. In one school a student may substitute one year of foreign language for the requirement in sophomore English composition or for psychology. In another a student who uses foreign language for entrance must continue the same language in college. In a third a student who does not present two high school units of a foreign language must take in college one year of foreign language, philosophy or fine arts. Occasionally foreign language or mathematics is required, sometimes depending on the student's major, sometimes on his own preference.

We had thought this study might show some regional trends. It does not seem to do so. New York state has the heaviest requirements, but there are notable exceptions such as Columbia Teachers College with no requirement and New York University College of Education which requires foreign language for English majors only.

The answers did not greatly develop any proposed changes. Some stated that a general revision of curricula was under way. The others were about evenly divided as to the possibility of adding a new requirement or of eliminating one they now have. One or two were jubilant over not being burdened with anything so useless as foreign language; others felt that the present world situation makes its study imperative.

The picture of the foreign language situation in teacher training institutions, which shows 194 with no requirement compared with forty-one with a definite inclusive requirement and nineteen with partial requirements in college, plus some requiring high school foreign language for admittance, is by no means complete. Our study is limited to curricula leading to the B. S. degree in Education. We had expected the words of our question "B. S. in Education degree or its equivalent" to bring answers including requirements for any professional undergraduate degree given to students defi-

nately training to be teachers on any level. Some institutions did respond in that manner but many limited their replies to the one degree. A number of teacher training institutions give an A. B. in Education degree, some designating it especially for students who expect to teach in the secondary schools. Some of those institutions do have foreign language requirements for the A. B. in Education degree or for whatever professional degree they give. In some, at least, the main distinction between the B. S. and B. A. degrees in Education, or with those words omitted, seems to be the foreign language requirement. Our study does not show the extent of the foreign language requirement for such degrees, but it is possible to assume from such comments as we did receive that prospective secondary teachers are somewhat more likely to be required to study a foreign language than other teaching groups.

Nevertheless we are faced with the fact that a majority of the teachers trained in our country *need* never in their whole educational program come into contact with a foreign language. The majority of our teachers *need* never gain the perspective on their own language or the realization of word relations and potentialities which can come only when one leaves his own tongue with its familiar connotations and habits. We as a nation are not insisting that our teachers learn the one intimate, basic approach to the thoughts and attitudes of the foreign peoples who are now so much closer to us than they were one hundred years ago and with whom we must learn to share the world amicably. If any person in our country needs a broad, basic cultural training in all major areas of human thought and achievement, and certainly in those which open up to us the minds and hearts of foreign peoples and which help us to communicate with them, it is the classroom teacher whose wide understanding, whose prejudices, whose reasoned tolerance and whose bigotry are absorbed every day by the children under her care.

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[This report was made at the Northwestern State College Foreign Language Conference at Natchitoches, Louisiana, May 2, 1947. It was not feasible to print the summary of findings mentioned by the author but interested persons may write to her directly. *Editor's note.*]

The Trinity Plan for Language Teaching

IN order that the reader may have an understanding of the Trinity plans for the teaching of languages and literatures, he must first know something of the general role of languages in our university and something of our philosophy of languages. A brief introductory background is, therefore, in order. Since space is necessarily limited, I shall not yield to the temptation to discuss many intriguing side issues, attendant problems, and the pros and cons of the subject, which are well known to the profession. Indeed, for the reader to have a complete understanding of our plans, it would be necessary to give a demonstration of how they work and how we teach. We realize full well that every plan has its merits and demerits, but we believe that the virtues of our plan outweigh its defects.

Trinity University has a student body of approximately 1200. The department of foreign languages has a staff of eight regular members and an enrollment of between five hundred and six hundred students, or about fifty per cent of the student body. This is a relatively high percentage when compared with that of many other institutions. We offer courses in Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, Latin and Greek, giving majors only in Spanish and French and minors in all but Portuguese.

Trinity requires eighteen semester hours of one language for graduation with the B. A. degree, twelve hours for the B. S. degree. A major consists of thirty semester hours, and students taking a minor in a language have a choice between a long-minor of twenty-four semester hours or two short-minors of eighteen semester hours each. In addition to the required thirty hours, language majors must complete six hours in a history course dealing with the country whose language they are studying. Our department also cooperates with the history department in offering a major in inter-American studies.

We believe that a knowledge of more than one language is a necessity, not a luxury, for safe and sane living in our world today. Believing as we do in all the practical, utilitarian values of language study, we have provided five courses, with a total of twenty-one semester hours, in the art of learning a language. We have no new theories to offer concerning the teaching of languages, no startling discoveries to announce, no radical philosophies or doctrines to preach; and we know of no royal road to Romance languages. We simply and sincerely believe that Mother Nature's method is still the best. All know what hers is: first, man learns to speak; then, to read and,

finally, to write. We contend that we would be better teachers of languages if we would observe the child more, but this is a subject for another paper. Teachers might well say to their students, if you will allow me a serious paraphrase: Except ye become as a little child ye shall in no wise enter into the kingdom of languages.

In this connection, let us observe in passing that creating the right psychological approach to the study of languages, helping the student in his conquest of fear, is of paramount importance in working out language methods and curriculum. It is foolish to tell a man not to be afraid of a lion—he may conquer the lion, but he can probably never conquer his fear of the lion. Likewise it is foolish to tell the student not to be afraid of languages. We must eliminate the lion. This can be done in too many ways to enlarge upon here, but the first step is to demonstrate to the student that he can think in the language from the very beginning and that he can soon be using it well enough to get along. This develops his self-confidence which then leads him on to greater accomplishments.

For reasons obvious to members of our profession—which should be obvious to any thinking person—we believe that there can never be a universal language and that the peace of the world depends upon our mutual understanding. This in turn depends upon our knowing each other's language. Due to the geographical position of San Antonio and its historical background, we place greater emphasis upon the necessity for making the peoples of the Americas bilingual, and we insist that it is best to begin with the pre-school child. In fact, we consider it our duty and moral responsibility as citizens of the world to make our country language conscious. And perhaps one of the greatest services we, as teachers, can render our students is to get them to see that language is the greatest tool of mankind. Necessity is not only the mother of invention, she is also the mother of most of our learning. When students can see some necessity for a knowledge of languages, it is amazing with what rapidity they can pick them up.

Above and beyond all the utilitarian reasons and any ulterior motives which people may have for language study, we at Trinity believe fundamentally in the esthetic and idealistic values of languages and literatures. Therefore, we have worked out five courses, carrying a total of thirty semester hours, which give a complete coverage of the field of literature.

The individual student is the center of all our planning and curriculum building. We are interested in each and every student, not merely in our majors. We offer to the student, therefore, a choice of plans and courses best suited to his needs, and we cooperate with the student's major department in advising and guiding him in his language study. Since we attempt to give the individual as much attention as possible, we endeavor to limit classes to fifteen to twenty students. The number fluctuates, to be sure, but our average is between twelve and fifteen. Some times this means calling in an

extra or part-time instructor, but we feel that the results justify the added expense.

It is obvious that in every language department there are two curricula, though it is surprising the number of teachers who do not seem to take this fact into consideration. One deals with the mechanics of learning the language—the art of communication of ideas, the science of the patterns of speech, speech habits and customs. This is the language curriculum. On the whole, it belongs to the lower division. It requires especially trained and gifted teachers to execute. The other is an upper-division curriculum, made up principally of courses in literature. This is the literary curriculum. It requires a different type of teacher. Rarely does one find a combination of the two types. Due to many limitations, most students, unfortunately, never go beyond the language curriculum to know the joys and benefits of the literary curriculum.

Taking Spanish as the example, we offer the beginner a total of twenty-one semester hours in the language curriculum. As necessity demands we shall add other courses. The elementary and intermediate levels, about which we shall speak in a moment, give the student twelve semester hours of credit. Beyond these there are the following: Advanced Conversation, giving three hours credit, whose purpose is to give the student an intensive drill in the every-day idiom as well as in the literary style; Advanced Grammar, three hours, a course designed to meet the needs of Spanish-speaking natives who have a very limited knowledge of grammar (This course is highly recommended to majors, especially those preparing to teach.); finally, Commercial Spanish, a three-hour course very popular and valuable in our section of the country.

Although we place primary emphasis on the spoken language, we believe that speaking, reading and writing are equally important and that a student does not know a language until he is proficient in all three. Our general impression is that students who first acquire a measure of facility and fluency in the spoken language later make more rapid strides in reading and writing. However, in order to satisfy individual requirements and tastes, since the student's needs are our main concern, we permit the student a choice of two types of classes on the elementary and intermediate levels. One stresses the spoken language without neglecting reading, while the other accents reading without neglecting speaking. In some sections students are taught to speak before textbooks are placed in their hands. In fact, the students are required to participate in the construction of their own texts. This is one of the means by which they are led to think in the language from the beginning. This is of supreme importance, and no easy task.

Like many institutions we use audio-visual aids, require laboratory work, sponsor movies, language clubs and tables, encourage radio-listening and use a variety of realia; but we accept these aids for what they are worth; for

nothing can replace an inspired and inspiring teacher. Hence, we allow the instructor complete freedom to use his ingenuity and all techniques at his command.

In classes which devote more attention to reading—particularly is this true of German—insofar as possible material is given to fit the individual's needs and interests. In consultation with the student's major department, the instructors select texts dealing with historical, scientific, philosophical and literary materials. For example, an English major with a minor in French may, upon the request of his advisor, be assigned to read Baudelaire's translation of Edgar Allan Poe as part of his required reading in French. Or perhaps the art department may request that one of its majors do certain readings in German. Or the instructor in philosophy may suggest that certain important French and German works in that field be put on the required reading lists for his students studying these languages. Thus, as best we can, we try to coordinate and integrate our work with that of the other departments.

In all but a few classes grammar is taught inductively—preferably only when the students inquire about it. A knowledge of grammar is not requisite to correct speech and not at all necessary in learning another language, and I personally would welcome the day when we reserved such a study for the advanced, professional student. (I realize that there are many who do not share this view.) We are, however, deeply concerned that our students see the pattern of speech, but we discourage the memorization of rules, verbs and vocabulary. The students must learn by examples—both oral and written—to see the patterns and then to work out, by their own reasoning, statements regarding the principles that govern the patterns. If this is followed religiously, the uses of the subjunctive, radical changing and orthographical changing verbs hold no terrors or mysteries for the students. By simple demonstrations and participation, as in a science laboratory, students hear and see these patterns and acquire them naturally and normally. Verbs and vocabulary must be learned by constant usage. I, for one, object to texts with vocabularies. I prefer a lexicon with simple definitions and word-studies entirely in the foreign language. But with all our insistence, I must confess that we do not always succeed in getting all our students to practice what we preach.

In addition to giving the student a choice of the type of class he may enter, we offer the beginner and the intermediate a choice of two schedule plans. He may take languages six hours per week or he may elect to take the traditional three hour class. This is a choice which, so far as I know, no other school offers. The former is more desirable for those who wish to concentrate on the spoken language; the latter, for those who desire to give more attention to reading.

For both the beginning and the advanced students needing more inten-

sive work in the language, we offer six weeks of study at our summer school in Mexico City; and we hope, through various channels, to broaden our program of study in foreign countries for all our language majors and other students.

In our literary curriculum we offer five courses with a total of thirty semester hours. The introductory course to this group or division is a year-course in the History of Spanish Literature. This is a preparatory course for the others which follow and is prerequisite to them. Heretofore, this has been the culminating course at Trinity, as in many other institutions, and students were allowed to choose at random from a number of courses illogically arranged. But experience has taught us that under the old system all that most students got was a smattering of ignorance, a confusion of literary periods, genre, movements and figures. Our present courses are designed to correct this and other defects and to orient the student in the field of literature.

We see a number of advantages to this arrangement, but we feel that its chief benefit to the student is that it enables him to choose with greater judgment and discrimination his area of concentration by first giving him a comprehensive view. For this reason we offer none of the usual period courses. All courses above this general course are semester courses set up on the seminar plan, granting four to six semester hours of credit. The four seminars in Spanish are: Poetry, Drama, Novel and Spanish-American Literature. Each course is an intensive and extensive study, giving the complete history of the origin and development of the genre to the present day. The bibliography is exhaustive and original investigations are required of the students.

Lest some readers have the idea that our plan is an adaptation of the plans in effect at the universities of Iowa and Cornell, I hasten to explain, with all due respect to these great institutions, that ours was worked out independently. There is a resemblance between our language curriculum plan and those mentioned above, but ours is somewhat of a modified combination of the two. In brief, I think it might be said that our plan is a conversational approach to reading and a reading approach to conversation—as one recent publication announces as a new departure. Whereas we do not go as far in our language curriculum as the Iowa and Cornell plans, we go much farther in our literary curriculum than any other institutions about which we know. We make no boastful claims for our plans; time and experience will teach us the modification necessary. Of one thing we are certain: any curriculum must be flexible enough to meet the changing demands of the times and of the individual student.

The teacher, no less than the poet, has a divine mission to perform. And we, as representatives of other cultures, as interpreters of poetry, of drama and of prose, owe it to our students and to our ideals, indeed to

civilization itself, to work out the best possible plans, methods and curricula for efficient and effective language teaching. Even then we have taken only the first step in the right direction.

ROBERT OWENS

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[This paper was read before the Northwestern State College Foreign Language Conference, Natchitoches, Louisiana, May 2-3, 1947. *Editor's note.*]

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE

Principals and superintendents as well as foreign-language teachers are invited to attend the foreign language conference sponsored April 22-24, 1948, by the University of Kentucky. In addition to the presentation of about fifty papers there will be lectures by Walter B. Agard, University of Wisconsin (Classical languages); Frederick B. Wahr, University of Michigan (Germanic languages); and James B. Tharp, Ohio State University (Romance languages). A high school principals' panel on "Foreign Languages in the Modern Secondary School" will be a special feature. Programs may be obtained from Professor Jonah W. D. Skiles, Director of the Foreign Language Conference, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Notes and News

The principal articles in this number were presented before some of the numerous gatherings at which persons interested in the teaching of languages exchange their ideas and solutions of problems. We hope that their publication will serve both as a reference for those who may have heard them and as a compensation for those who were unable to attend the meetings at which they were given. An editorial note concluding each article indicates the group before which it was presented. A brief notice concerning the two principal ones represented may be of interest.

The Northwestern State College, of Natchitoches, Louisiana, is sponsoring its third annual Foreign Language Conference this year. Papers from the 1947 Conference printed in this issue are among the more than fifty which were presented under the general theme of "Foreign Languages For Living in One World." Professor Dickman's article in the October number was another.

The Central States Modern Language Teachers Association is one of the largest of the groups affiliated with the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. In 1947, its annual meeting was held in two sections to accommodate more members. The Western Division meeting at Madison, Wisconsin, had for its theme "The International Outlook." "International Relations and the Implications for Foreign Language Study" was the theme of the Eastern Division meeting at Columbus, Ohio. The articles by Dr. Freeman and Dean Benjamin in the November *Journal* are substantially the texts of two of the speeches given before this latter group.

Next September, students of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, who elect modern languages for their language requirement, will have a choice of Spanish or Italian in addition to French or German. Liberal arts students still will be required to have a firm grounding in the classics, either through completion of third year college Latin or Greek or through two years of college courses in classical civilization by those who elect modern languages for their degree requirements.

Middle States Teachers Annual Meeting

CONVERSATION—HOW? was the subject considered by 80 persons from six states and the District of Columbia who gathered at Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, November 29, 1947, for the annual meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States.

The president of the association, John M. Pittaro of Fordham University, introduced Miss Emilie Margaret White, Director of Foreign Languages in Divisions I-IX, Washington, who presented the speakers and led the discussion.

The first speaker, Miss Esther M. Eaton, Garden City High School, Garden City, New York, gave the answer to the question from the classroom teacher. She advocated the use of the foreign language as the medium of instruction, composition through oral practice, the introductory weeks conducted without a textbook, the gradual learning of a limited vocabulary action in series and the acquisition of proper intonation through the listening to records and

through choral work in class. Miss Eaton made her talk helpful by circulating mimeographed sheets of the texts, films, records and realia that she has found effective in giving a thorough knowledge of fundamentals.

Miss Marguerite Zouck, speaking as a supervisor of languages in Baltimore, Maryland, emphasized the quality of the teaching rather the quantity. From her experience of a year spent in England as an exchange teacher she told of the greater emphasis on oral-aural instruction there than in our United States schools. She stressed the importance of an active vocabulary. There should be definite periods in the schedule in which pupils would listen to records or to broadcasts in the language. Each school should have its own language laboratory. The laboratory should be set up without undue cost, but, even if expensive, the sciences have expensive equipment, so why should not the languages also receive the money for efficient practice? Let the public know the results that may be obtained, and the money may be forthcoming for modern tools for languages. The oral approach demands teachers who can converse. To have conversational ability common among teachers there might be required summers spent in foreign countries or in language schools of the United States, or in-service training during the school months. Credit for this extra preparation would be recognized toward professional advancement.

The third speaker, Dr. José Padín, Editor-in-Chief of D. C. Heath and Company, discussed the subject from the point of view of an editor and one of the organizers of the Army language project of World War II. He urged teachers to continue harping on the oral approach, to travel and study in foreign countries, to get more time for their classes to listen to records and to present in the language club simple plays, to tell anecdotes and fables, and to sing songs. He spoke of the printed matter available for oral work. Dr. Padín said that teachers should not be content with corrupt expressions in their classes but should spare no effort to develop a good accent on the part of their students. In spite of obstacles, language teachers should keep on consistently and courageously.

This timely topic brought out discussion by the following men: Frederick H. Dedmond, Morgan State College, Maryland; Reverend Joseph A. Grifferty, Malvern Preparatory School, Pennsylvania; Albert W. Holzmänn, Rutgers University, New Jersey; L. Clark Keating, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.; Daniel Messler, The Peddie School, New Jersey; Wm. Milwitzky, Newark, New Jersey; Sol Pred, Forest Hills High School, New York.

The following officers were elected for the coming year: president, Miss Marguerite Zouck, Supervisor of Modern Languages, Baltimore Schools, Maryland; vice-presidents, Miss Esther Eaton, Garden City High School, Garden City, New York, Professor Albert W. Holzmänn, Rutgers University, New Jersey, Sister Marie Eugene, Marywood College, Pennsylvania; secretary-treasurer, Professor Esther J. Crooks, Goucher College, Maryland.

ESTHER J. CROOKS
Secretary-Treasurer

The French National Tourist Office in the United States announces the opening of a branch in Los Angeles—448 South Hill Street. Travel information, in the form of booklets, posters and lists of accommodations now open, is available. The New York office—610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20—also announces the availability of a 1948 calendar which contains interesting dates, facts and pictures of France. It will be sent free to all persons requesting it of that office.

Let's Be Fair to "On"

The teacher of French grammar usually finds the discussion of one of the most important pronouns in the language limited to a short paragraph "Indefinite Pronouns" or, worse yet, tucked neatly away in a footnote. As a matter of fact, the pronoun *on* is not so indefinite as our current texts would have us believe, and its importance in the current language is such

as to warrant a full discussion comparable to that given the personal pronouns. Moreover, no discussion of the personal pronouns should be complete without a full explanation of the fact that *on* can and does replace all of them—*definitely*.

Most current texts agree on the use of *on* when the subject is anonymous: *On vous demande au téléphone. On a refusé du monde au cinéma hier soir. On dit que les hommes sont plus intelligents que les chiens*. In these sentences, *on* is analogous to the English indefinite *they*. Texts also agree on the use of *on* to translate an English passive voice: *Ici on parle français. On m'a volé. On vend des journaux au coin de la rue. On m'a demandé mes papiers*. So much for these two uses of *on*. What most texts neglect, either by complete omission or by unsatisfactorily brief "commission," is the wide popularity enjoyed by *on* as a definite pronoun in the French language of today.

By the beginning of the fifteenth century, the case distinction in French had completely disappeared, and only distinctions between singular and plural were made. The word *on* (so as not to call it noun or pronoun yet), being derived from the Latin nominative *homo*, retained its nominative use and even today can only be used as the subject of a verb; *homme*, derived from the Latin accusative, was generalized the same as other nouns that lost their accusative or nominative distinction. The important thing is that *on* was originally a substantive (as Darmesteter calls it) and could even be separated from the verb, as a modern French re-writing of a line from the *Serments de Strasburg* illustrates:

Ainsi comme on son frère sauver doit.

In this connection it is interesting to note the German *man* which is analogous to the French *on*. This so-called French indefinite substantive finally arrived at being able to replace all of the personal pronouns without being any less definite. Of course, the exact identity of the pronoun replaced often depends on the text of the conversation, but this is no reason for classifying it strictly as an indefinite pronoun; for on this basis we would have to call *lui* (conjunctive) and *leur* indefinite pronouns. As a matter of fact, the purist would have to classify all of the conjunctive pronouns as indefinite except for the third person, since this person alone shows gender, number and person the most specifically.

Litttré points out that *on* can very clearly and definitely designate a woman and that any adjectival modifier in the sentence should agree with the sense and not with the form of the *on*:

On n'est pas plus belle que cette femme là.

Although *on* takes a singular verb, its meaning is often in the plural and therefore can take plural modifiers:

On est toujours séparés, mais on se rapproche par de longues et fréquentes visites.

Even with the few examples already given, is it logical to call *on* an indefinite or impersonal pronoun? It has gender, it has number, and, although its verb is always in the third person, it can indicate—and indicate clearly and definitely—any one of the three persons. As both Brunot and Nyrop have noted, *on* is particularly replacing the first person subject pronoun: *On a été au café, nous deux. Nous, on s'amuse*. Nyrop adds that this second example results from morphological reasons, to avoid *nous nous amusons*.

If certain purist grammarians stick to their guns and insist that *on* is an "indefinite" or "impersonal" pronoun, they must then conclude that the French language is becoming more and more indefinite and impersonal. This is not the case, even though one of Imbert's characters exclaims: "*On était! On parlait! On m'a vu—quel langage!*" (*Jaloux sans amour*, III, 6). Rather, could not the present popularity of *on* be a trend in the simplification of the pronoun subjects and the persons of the verb? From the moment that Latin invaded France, the complex Latin forms began to simplify. There is no reason to believe that this process has suddenly stopped. We are perhaps witnessing today a trend in the French language to lump all pronoun subjects under one form, *on*, with one verb person, except where an emphatic effect is desired.

It might also be observed that it is upon such a simplified system that any international language could be based.

The purpose of this article has not been to discredit the indefinite and impersonal use of *on* as outlined in current popular texts. Certainly this use exists. But, in addition to this use there is the very important *definite* and *personal* construction of this pronoun. It could perhaps be called a fourth person. It has its own disjunctive form, although its object forms are borrowed from the other persons. Can we not, therefore, remove it from the "Indefinite" section or from the six-point type of the footnote?

C. D. SHOKES

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Colby College of Waterville, Maine, has joined with Swarthmore in plans for a Colby-Swarthmore Summer School of Languages to begin in 1948. Intended primarily for undergraduates, the school will offer work in French, Spanish, German and Russian. Intensive language study methods will be employed where feasible, and extra-classroom language activities will be encouraged.

Tenses of the Subjunctive After "als ob," "als wenn"

Before me lie five German grammars written for use in college classes—three of them used in various levels of work this past Spring, the other two to be used this Fall. Of these grammars only one allows the student to suspect that the present or the perfect subjunctive may be used after *als ob*, *als wenn*, and even that one states its rule entirely in terms of the imperfect and pluperfect and gives all examples in these tenses.

The statements are as follows: Grammar number one:¹ "Clauses of Manner introduced by *als ob* or *als wenn* ("as if") also follow the general rules of contrary-to-fact conditions." This definitely rules out the use of the present or the perfect subjunctive and is itself contrary to facts.

Grammar number two:² *Als ob, als wenn* ("as if") take the subjunctive." The only example given is *Er sieht aus, als ob er krank wäre* which by implication might indicate the use of the imperfect subjunctive after *als ob, als wenn*.

Grammar number three:³ "The conjunctions *als ob* and *als wenn*, "as if," usually introduce a contrary-to-fact condition and are therefore regularly followed by either the past or the past perfect subjunctive." The example given is in the pluperfect subjunctive.

Grammar number four:⁴ "The subjunctive is used in clauses introduced by *als ob* or *als wenn*." Again all the examples are in the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and all the exercises seem to demand the use of these two tenses.

Grammar number five:⁵ "Clauses introduced by *als ob* commonly express doubt or unreality and therefore employ the First or preferably the Second Subjunctive. The present subjunctive I, or II, is used when the clause refers to the present. Subjunctive II of *haben* or *sein* is combined with the past participle, or double infinitive, when the clause refers to the past." While this statement admits the use of the present subjunctive after *als ob*, it definitely states a preference for the use of the imperfect and seems to say that the perfect subjunctive may not be used with reference to past time. Again all of the examples given are in the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.

¹ Evans and Röseler, *Shorter College German*, Crofts, p. 149.

² Burkhard and Downs, *Schreiben Sie Deutsch*, Henry Holt and Company, p. 209.

³ Vos, *Concise German Grammar*, Henry Holt and Company, 1944, p. 152.

⁴ Röseler, *German in Review*, Henry Holt and Company, Section 22.

⁵ Hofacker and Jente, *Complete College German*, D. C. Heath and Company, p. 191.

Possibly I should not have noticed this unsatisfactory treatment of the topic by the grammars if my students, in reading *Popular German Stories*, had not immediately run upon sentences in which the present subjunctive was used after *als ob*, *als wenn*. Naturally I had to explain to them that the present subjunctive was apparently as valid as the imperfect.

This led me to collect the examples of the use of the subjunctive in sentences of this type in the four stories contained in *Popular German Stories*. The results speak for themselves:

Present subjunctive—9 examples
Imperfect subjunctive—11 examples
Perfect subjunctive—0 examples
Pluperfect subjunctive—3 examples

Mit seinen ersten grauen Augen sah er gespannt in die Ferne, als erwarte er endlich eine Veränderung des einförmigen Weges.

... aber es war, als ob die Entfernung zwischen ihm und der Blume dieselbe bliebe.

Es ist, als ob wir alle an ihnen mitgeholfen hätten.

Then I turned to a modern writer to check on present day usage. The book I picked up was Kästner's *Drei Männer im Schnee*. The results follow:

Present subjunctive—13 examples
Imperfect subjunctive—7 examples
Perfect subjunctive—1 example
Pluperfect subjunctive—3 examples

Die Bäume und Büsche sahen aus, als ob auf ihren Zweigen Schnee blühe.

Es sah aus, als ob zwei erwachsene Männer fortgingen, um im Sand zu spielen.

Der Sonnenschein sah aus, als habe ihn eine gültige Fee gekämmt.

Du sprichst, als ob du früher ein Bankkonto gehabt hättest.

My purpose was, and remains, not to make a thorough-going comparison of the frequency of the use of the various tenses of the subjunctive after *als ob* but merely to point out a weakness in the presentation of this topic in many of our grammars and to call attention to the fact that the present subjunctive is probably as frequently used as the imperfect. It seems unwise, however, to leave the topic without a further word.

The question arises, of course, as to whether there is a difference in meaning as well as a difference in usage. Curme (revised edition) says (§168.II.B.) "The potential subjunctive is very much used in these clauses (clauses of manner) to indicate that the comparison rests upon plausible grounds, or is the subjective view of the speaker." The sentences he quotes are present subjunctives after *Es scheint mir*, *Es war ihm*, *Mir war als ob*. In note *a* he warns: "This use of the potential subjunctive must not be confounded with the unreal potential of a past tense form, which implies that the comparison is unreal and contrary to fact. He further states that this potential subjunctive in the present tense may be construed according to the rules of indirect discourse.

There is then a very real difference between a sentence such as *Es ist, als stecke das Schicksal dahinter*,⁶ which seems very close to indirect discourse or indirect statement, and *Du sprichst, als ob du früher ein Bankkonto gehabt hättest*,⁷ where the implication is strictly contrary-to-fact.

Somewhere between these two lie sentences such as:

*Er liess sich die Jacketts, den Smoking, die Schjoppe und den Frack anziehen, als seien es lauter Zwangsjacken.*⁸

⁶ *Drei Männer im Schnee*, p. 110.

⁷ p. 94.

⁸ p. 15.

Sie befühlte ihn (den Anzug) so vorsichtig, als fürchte sie, er könne beißen.⁹

Ich komme mir vor, als hätte man mich durch eine Wringmaschine gedreht.¹⁰

Sie sehen aus, als wollten Sie ins Kloster gehen.¹¹

Der Sonnenschein sah aus, als habe ihn eine gültige Fee gekämmt.¹²

The verbs *vorkommen* and *aussehen* are close enough in meaning to *Es scheint* to come under Curme's §168.II.B. and approach indirect discourse. The others seem far away from indirect discourse, yet they are not of Curme's type two (unreal potentials of past tense form). There are, however, so many examples of this sort that, if we wish to bring them under one rubric, we may have to say: Even though the meaning of the main verb seems far from implying indirect discourse, these clauses of manner are to be construed according to the rules of indirect discourse, probably because they express a thought of the speaker (or author) to which he does not wish to give the validity of the indicative—that is, they are an indirect statement.

If this cursory investigation can be accepted as a cross-section of usage, it seems to show that the present subjunctive is as common as the imperfect and that the perfect subjunctive does occur instead of the pluperfect—that is, that tense usage resembles that of indirect discourse.

CHARLES HOLZWARTH

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Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Virginia, now offers its students with competence in French the opportunity of a year of supervised study at the Sorbonne. The plan, approved by the Advisory Committee on the Junior Year in France of the Institute of International Education, provides for full credit toward the A. B. degree.

Films for French Classes

French Canada is one of the greatest centers of French culture in the world. Almost one third of the Canadian people are French in origin and in language. Montreal is among the three or four largest French-speaking cities in the world; Quebec City, the ancient capital of New France, is in its way every bit as French as Paris; and along the lower St. Lawrence, for instance, one may find villages as completely French as those to be seen in Normandy. This is not to say that French Canada is just like France proper; it is not. Between Quebec and modern France there are many differences. But both are descended from the same ancestor, and both have grown out of pre-Revolutionary France. The non-French influences that have affected Quebec, chiefly British and American in the case of French Canada, have certainly had their parallel in the case of France too. For all these reasons, fears occasionally expressed by teachers of French concerning the quality of the French spoken in Quebec are without any real foundation. There is no cause for teachers to have any misgivings about encouraging their pupils to listen to the speech of an educated French-Canadian. French, like English, is a living accent, spoken in an immense variety of accents and intonations, depending largely upon the region, and making use of colloquialisms, archaisms, neologisms and all sorts of other linguistic phenomena. The educated French-Canadian speaks a very good standard French as does a Frenchman of similar education in France. The speech of an educated French-Canadian in Quebec, then, need cause no qualms to anyone.

The National Film Board of Canada has produced a number of films which portray the French aspect of Canadian life and which picture for the student the essential nature of French Canada. Among these films are *TERRE DE NOS AIEUX* (color, 35 minutes). The

⁹ p. 15.

¹⁰ p. 70.

¹¹ p. 102.

¹² p. 71.

title of the film is a quotation from the original French version of the Canadian national anthem: "*O Canada, terre de nos aïeux. . .*" The film itself is a four-reel production about the yearly round on a farm on the north shore of the lower St. Lawrence, a region intensely French, where the old customs and the old ways of life still survive to a great extent the impact of North American modernism. An English version has been made under the title *ALEXIS TREMBLAY, HABITANT* (color, 35 minutes); and three short films in English are now in production from the same footage; they are specially designed for classroom use and are entitled respectively *SUMMER . . .*, *AUTUMN . . .*, and *SPRING ON A QUEBEC FARM* (each in color, 10 minutes).

LES FRAISES DE L'ÎLE D'ORLEANS (reportage 110,* black and white, 10 minutes) likewise pictures life in one of the long-settled agricultural districts of Quebec. The picturesque Island of Orleans, in the St. Lawrence just below Quebec City, is not only beautiful but is also full of historical and architectural interest. Photographed in this region also was *LA-HAUT SUR CES MONTAGNES* (black and white, 7 minutes); this film shows one of the traditional evening parties—*veillées*—at a farmer's house, where the guests dance square dances to the music of a fiddle and a country girl sings, unaccompanied, the lovely old folk-song which shares its title with the film.

The place of the French as one of the two main races of Canada, both historically and in present conditions, is reflected in *PEOPLES OF CANADA* (black and white, 21 minutes), a general picture of the various racial groups who have settled in this new country and have helped to develop it. *MAPLE SUGAR TIME* (color, 11 minutes) shows how the early French settlers got their supply of sweet stuff from the country by a method learned from the Indians: drawing sap from the maple trees and boiling it down into syrup and sugar—still a favorite annual undertaking in the eastern Canadian countryside.

The French-Canadians, however, are far from being an exclusively peasant people. Their cultural achievements can stand comparison with those of any other group of comparable size in the new world. In literature, music, sculpture and painting, as well as in several branches of handicrafts, they have made their mark. The vigor of present day painting is shown in the film *SEPT PEINTRES DE QUEBEC* (in English, *PAINTERS OF QUEBEC*—color, 18 minutes), in which seven Quebec artists are seen at work and their varied inspiration and techniques are demonstrated. *LE VENT QUI CHANTE* (black and white, 20 minutes) depicts the making of a pipe organ at the famous workshops of Casavant Frères in St. Hyacinthe, P.Q., ending with an organ recital in the historical and beautiful Basilica in Quebec City. Two very recent productions are similarly devoted to the artistic and intellectual side of French-Canadian life. They are: *VIENT DE PARAÎTRE* (black and white, 10 minutes), which deals with the book publishing business, recalling that during the late war this province became the world center of publication of French books in the French language, and *VIEUX MÉTIER, JEUNESGENS* (black and white, 20 minutes), which shows a craft in which Quebecers have always excelled—the handling of wood. From wood they have developed one of the very few distinctive types of architecture on the North American continent, as well as a beautiful native tradition of furniture making. The film shows the training and achievements of apprentices in cabinet-making at the provincial government craft school in Montreal. In *IL ÉTAIT UN PETIT NAVIRE* (Reportage 31, black and white, 10 minutes) we see the villages of Petite Rivière St-François engaged in building—also from wood—a little *golette*, a small schooner for the river trade on the St. Lawrence. In the traditional manner brought over from France with the very earliest settlers, the boat is blessed at her launching by the village priest.

An excellent motivational film for students of French is *ENTENTE CORDIALE* (in English, *SCHOOL FOR CANADIANS*—black and white, 10 minutes). This film shows an

* "Reportage 110" is one of more than 120 short subjects in the newsreel series "Reportages." Intended primarily for theatrical release in Canada, the titles are available, in part, in the United States. *Editor's note.*

interesting experiment in bi-lingualism carried on in recent years under the auspices of the University of Western Ontario: a bi-lingual summer school at the entirely French-speaking village of Trois-Pistoles, on the south shore of the St. Lawrence below Rivière-du-Loup. Classes are conducted in French for English-speaking students, and vice versa; there is ample opportunity for practice in real-life situations out of school hours.

All these films have of course been produced for general distribution among French-speaking audiences—certainly not with any special eye to their use in English-speaking classrooms. It follows, then, that many of them are suitable only for advanced classes by reason of the speed with which the commentary is delivered and the nature of the vocabulary used. *LE VENTE QUI CHANTE*, for instance, is beyond the grasp of any but advanced students; but for them it should prove a rewarding experience to see this altogether exceptional film. *ALEXIS TREMBLAY*, too, on account of its length, requires a long span of attention which would prove a great strain for students not yet very proficient in understanding spoken French, although the simple, clear nature of the subject and the visuals do in fact minimize this difficulty. The same might be said of *PAYS DE MON COEUR* (color, 32 minutes), a very lovely film about the four seasons in Gatineau Park, a game preserve and sports region near Ottawa.

In addition to its own productions, the National Film Board of Canada has in a number of cases produced French versions of certain other films for distribution in French Canada. Some of these are really outstanding and would be of double interest in advanced French classes. Such are *DESERT VICTORY* (black and white, 62 minutes), the superb British documentary film about the war in North Africa, and *ONE WORLD OR NONE* (black and white, 10 minutes), a recent Philip Ragan production on atomic energy, which will shortly be available for non-theatrical distribution in French.

JESSIE MENNIE

London University
London, England

[Miss Mennie, formerly Educational Films Officer at the National Film Board of Canada, Ottawa, is now Carnegie Fellow in Visual Education at London University. Many of the films mentioned are available in the United States through the International Film Bureau, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago 1, Illinois. *Editor's note.*]

The International Film Bureau, Inc. has opened a New York office—15 Park Row, New York 7. It will handle sales in the New England, Pennsylvania, New York and New Jersey area and will maintain a specialized rental and preview library. A series of French and Spanish language teaching films is available.

My Approach and Method in Teaching Russian

"Teaching is the noblest work that man or angels may do." (Horace Mann)

Before speaking about my method in teaching the Russian language, I find it necessary to make some general remarks about the conditions and factors which, in my opinion, determine the success of a pedagogical method.

It is my conviction that method of teaching begins with the teacher himself and not with the textbooks or curriculum. G. B. Shaw has made a remark "He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches." Evidently he spoke of those of us teachers who simply follow the given routine.

Indeed, it is of the utmost importance for a teacher to adapt a workable method, but it seems to me that the most efficient and effective method will fall short of its objective unless the teacher not only has the knowledge of his subject but endeavors to live up to the following prerequisites:

To have genuine interest in and enthusiasm for his own work and for the subject, and the ability to impart this enthusiasm to his students.

To be a psychologist as well as instructor—to grasp the individual as well as collective problems of the students.

To establish an atmosphere of mutual respect, self-discipline and cordiality.

To show sincerity, sympathetic understanding and sense of humor.

To have adaptability, perseverance and resourcefulness in meeting the new situations which arise in every new group and, indeed, in every session.

"In the pedagogical work love can accomplish the impossible, it can perform veritable miracles." These words of the great Pirogov could be an inspiration to the teaching profession.

Today we know better than ever that the student's attitude toward the subject is conditioned by the personal attitude and personality of the teacher. This seems to be especially true in the case of language which requires more personal approach and careful handling. Particularly, such is the case with the Russian language for several reasons: the unfavorable present psychological atmosphere, the reputation of its being a *very foreign* and difficult language, the short history of its teaching in the United States, the lack of standardized requirements and adequate textbooks.

As a native teacher of the Russian language I feel that in order to be successful I must take into consideration the student's approach to Russian from the point of view of his own language, cultural media, background and psychology. Also, I have found out that it is possible to facilitate the learning of Russian by beginners by emphasizing, whenever possible, similarities rather than differences between our languages. There are many related problems, common features, cognates, and the like which one may help students to discover, bringing out their awareness of the close interrelation of the two languages.

These are some of the premises on which I am endeavoring to base my method of instruction. This, of course, must be done within the framework of the assigned curriculum and with due regard to the interests, aims and objectives of the group.

There is disagreement among the pedagogs as to the method that should be used in elementary courses. I am particularly interested in this problem. My discussion does not include the specialized technical or scientific courses; in my opinion they too must offer at least one semester of training in basic Russian. I have in view here a basic, general college course which would meet the needs of the majority of students, whether their interest centers on reading, speaking or writing Russian.

Profiting by the experience of some prominent teachers and by my own varied experience during five years of teaching, I have come to the conclusion that a *combination method* is the most effective. By "combination method" I mean a well-balanced and rounded method which exploits, to the fullest degree, practical aspects of the so-called *direct method* (oral-aural system), which includes the judicious use of textbook and grammar and makes tactical utilization of visual and sound media (movie, dictaphone, records and others). As the scope of vocabulary is enlarged and students become more articulate, more and more emphasis is given to speech, recitations, conversational groups and class discussion (all based on the material familiar to all). In due time social activities, dramatizations, song sessions, forums and other extracurricular activities are organized. All these lead to a fuller articulation and a more meaningful and functional use of the acquired knowledge of the language. ("Every trick to make it click.")

(In my opinion, the intermediate and advanced classes should be conducted largely as seminars. They should be linguistic workshops with the emphasis on the particular needs and interests of the group. They should give motivation and life to the acquired knowledge of the language.)

It has been my experience that after one year—in some cases after one semester—of such a basic general course, the student is well grounded in basic Russian and is well on the way toward the mastery of spoken and written word.

Education, being one of the main means of human progress, is enlarging the scope of its

objectives in order to meet the needs of the new day. Pedagogical ideas and methods are being revised in order to fit into the broader concepts of education.

This is particularly evident in the field of linguistic education with its present day motto—'Foreign languages for global war and global peace.'

It is our responsibility as teachers, not only to keep abreast with the educational evolution but to contribute to it and lead the way.

"The man who can make a hard thing easy is the educator." (Emerson)

NADY DENIE

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Reviews

BAUDELAIRE, CHARLES, *One Hundred Poems from "Les fleurs du mal,"* translated by C. F. MacIntyre. University of California Press, Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1947, pp. xiv+400. Price, \$5.00.

Charles Baudelaire is rapidly becoming as popular a challenge to the translator's skill as Quintus Horatius Flaccus has been for generations. Arthur Symonds, F. P. Sturm, W. J. Robertson, Richard Herne Shepherd, Joseph T. Shipley, Piaget Shanks, Edna St. Vincent Millay, George Dillon and Geoffrey Wagner are among those who in recent years have made serious efforts to turn *Les fleurs du mal* into English verse.

Mr. C. F. MacIntyre has lightened the difficult task of translation somewhat by setting his own rules, which eliminate many of the exigencies of regular versification. If the rime comes easily, he employs rime; otherwise he uses near-rimes, as *mean-stain*, or assonance, as *dress-breasts*, or consonantal rime, as *name-prime*, or eye-rime, as *mound-wound*, or alliteration, as *scaffolds-scoundrel*, or lets the final syllables fall as they may. A favorite device is to rime a plural with a singular, as in *tears-austere*, or *abysm-victims*. The use of these tantalizing, often annoying, rime approximations, combined with a certain license in meter, which occasionally gives a choppy effect to the flow of the line, has enabled Mr. MacIntyre to achieve almost a literal translation of Baudelaire's compact verse. This closeness to the original is brought out forcefully by comparing his rendition of the opening quatrain of the famous "*La vie antérieure*" with that of Arthur Symonds and of George Dillon. I give the French so that the reader may judge for himself:

J'ai longtemps habité sous de vastes portiques
Que les soleils marins teignaient de mille feux,
Et que leurs grands piliers, droits et majestueux,
Rendaient pareils, le soir, aux grottes basaltiques.

I have dwelt under the reign of Dynasties,
Where the seas cast under the sunsets flames and fires,
I have seen the Nile yellowing its moods and mires,
And, under the Pyramids, Idolatries.

Baudelaire, Prose and Poetry. Translated by Arthur Symonds, New York, 1926, p. 110.

I can remember a country of long high colonnades
Which mirrored in their pale marble the prismatic light
Cast from the bright sea billows in a thousand shades,
And which resembled a cave of fluted basalt by night.

Flowers of Evil. From the French of Charles Baudelaire by George Dillon and Edna St. Vincent Millay, New York, 1936, p. 12.

Once on a time I lived in mighty vaults
 which ocean suns stained with a thousand gleams;
 their straight majestic columns made them seem
 at evening deep grottoes of basalt.

C. F. MacIntyre, p. 37.

It is obvious at a glance that Mr. Symonds has overshot the mark and brought in exotic details and a Satanism which are not in the original and which take away from Baudelaire's nostalgic vagueness. Mr. Symonds is characteristically using Baudelaire as a springboard for his own imagination, and the result hardly merits the name of translation. He employs orthodox rimes, however, though his rhythm is somewhat strained. Mr. Dillon's version is closer to the original in meaning and spirit, and his iambic hexameter, though rough in spots, parallels the French *alexandrin*. He has, nevertheless, altered Baudelaire's plausible picture to make of it a physical impossibility. Mr. MacIntyre has more closely reproduced the poet's words and thought than either Mr. Symonds or Mr. Dillon, but his rimes are only approximate. In general, Mr. MacIntyre uses very little "padding," as he picturesquely calls the addition of words to fill in the meter or to catch a rime; but it is questionable whether Baudelaire's severely classical verse form and meticulous workmanship should be adapted to such a free metrical system as the translator employs.

The following apparent misinterpretations seem to me worth noting because they substantially alter the meaning of the poet: "perverse" for *immonde*, p. 5; "Dominions" for *Dominations*, p. 15 (cf. Milton's *Paradise Lost*, V, 600, 772, 840); "played" for *jouissaient*, p. 23; "brown breasts" for *têlines brunes*, p. 23; "Use" for *l'Utile*, p. 23; "unknown sphinx" for *sphinx incompris*, p. 45; "to the beat of a baton" for *Au bout d'un bâton*, p. 67; "Wastrel" for *libertin*, p. 159; "a poet shoddy" for *poète chétif*, p. 179; "let your arms pretend to pray" for *Que . . . Tes bras se fassent prier*, p. 181; "a shrunken river" for *une rivière accrue*, p. 191; "animals that sicken" for *animaux blessés*, p. 197; "sick men's sorrow" for *douleurs des malades*, p. 211; "the sneak's plausible pretenses" for *de spécieux prétextes de cafard*, p. 255; "jealousy" for *rancune*, p. 317; "discoverer of Americas" for *inventeur d'Amérique*, p. 318; "your symbol" for *notre image*, p. 327; "workman" for *laboureur*, p. 354; "and do you say to yourself" for *Et de toi fais-tu dire*, p. 394.

The following misprints may be noted: *voux* for *vous* (326: 23), *Gout* for *Goût* (333: 20), *le belle* for *le bel* (375: 32), *denyer* for *denier* (390: 1) and *samêdis* for *samedis* (400: 23).

The notes, comprising sixty-five pages, are a curious and interesting combination of gleanings from the translator's extensive readings, observations cited from various commentators, remarks upon these observations, moral and esthetic reflections, and a conclusion in the form of an envoi apostrophizing the shade of Baudelaire. The technical remarks concerning the translator's difficulties are the most interesting. The note (379) incorrectly refers *lovelaces* to the Cavalier poet instead of to the character in Richardson's *Clarissa Harlowe*. The last two sentences of the note on *Le vin de l'assassin* (383) should be deleted as the author has eliminated the translation of *été* as "spring" from his text. A scanty bibliography is appended, listing, for example, only one of the many translations of Baudelaire.

The translations which seemed to me to be outstanding in technique and accuracy were "*Remords posthume*" (79), "*Je te donne ces vers*" (87), "*Les chats*" (131), "*La musique*" (135) and "*Spleen*." Any adverse criticisms offered have been given in all humility for I am well aware of the infinite difficulties that beset a translator of verse. In fact, I have the feeling that it is almost by a miracle that a single poem can be turned successfully from one language into another. Those unfamiliar with French should be indeed grateful for Mr. MacIntyre's valiant effort to reproduce the meaning and spirit of Baudelaire in modern English verse; and the initiate must perforce regard with awe the translator's courage, skill and persistence.

The University of California Press should be congratulated on the tasteful design and beautiful illustrations and printing of this text.

RICHARD PARKER

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GIDE, ANDRÉ, *Isabelle*, edited by Elsie Pell. F. S. Crofts and Company, New York, 1947, pp. 150. Price, \$1.50.

Though it is not so widely known as some of Gide's works, this little masterpiece, which was published in 1921, is well worth reading. Gide wrote it from a purely literary viewpoint without any—or with hardly any—of his usual metaphysical preoccupations. The plot is extremely simple; it is just a love story in which the heroine plays the bigger part, though she appears mostly in the hero's day-dreaming. However, her nefarious influence is felt by all. What adds to the interest is the fact that life and fiction are closely intermingled, since both the background and the main characters are true and accurately depicted.

Miss Pell has preserved the whole story and has supplemented it with very good notes and a vocabulary. The notes, however, are not quite adequate since many idioms and colloquialisms were omitted. According to the editor, the book is intended for second- or third-year college students and advanced high school students. The reviewer is of the opinion that most of those students would find it very hard to understand such expressions as: *on est bientôt rendu*—here *rendu* does not mean "returned" nor "exhausted," but "arrived," and the colloquialism would be translated by "we will soon be there" (14); *mettre les bouchées doubles* (16); *Dieu me pardonne* (17); *on en revient déjà* (18); *si c'est Dieu permis* (20); *faire sien* (21); *être de bon conseil* (30); *il en tirait quatre grosses* (32); *prenait peine à* (32); *vous m'en donnerez des nouvelles* (67); *pour sûr*—the popular French equivalent of "to be sure," "of course"—(81); *pour le quart d'heure* (82); *c'est du beau monde*—in an ironical sense—(82); *si le coeur vous en dit* (85).

The reviewer also found three misprints: *beaufrère*—*beau-frère*—(32); *cest*—*c'est*—(26); *qu j'eusse*—*que j'eusse*—(85).

On the whole the book is satisfactory and will appeal to teachers and to advanced students who know French well enough to enjoy thoroughly the delicate charm of the story and of the Gidian style.

AGNÈS DUKEAU

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HAXO, HENRY E., *Images de la France*. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946, pp. xxix+421. Price, \$2.25.

This reader is a revision of the author's *Elementary French Reader*, published some ten years ago, with which many of our readers are already familiar.

The book contains 345 pages of text and has been graded according to difficulty. It has a variety of material, including the following: (1) short stories, mostly by nineteenth-century writers; (2) scenes from *Le voyage de M. Perrichon*; (3) episodes from *Les misérables* and Malot's *Sans famille*; (4) brief historical selections; (5) sections dealing with various phases of French civilization; (6) increased material on aids for the recognition and formation of French words; (7) three stories dealing with events of World War II; (8) two articles on French Colonies and France in America; and (9) a selection of French songs and poems.

The last three constitute additions to the original text. Certain other changes have been made. The order of stories has been changed, and the material on French civilization has been expanded. There are exercises at the end of each story or selection which consist of grammar completion sentences, questions to be answered on the text and sentences to be translated into French. The book, according to its author, has been prepared for use late in the first semester of college.

Mr. Haxo declares in his preface to this revised edition that "it has been planned in keeping with the general trend of modern language study . . . It emphasizes the acquisition of both a speaking and a reading knowledge of the language." In the preface to the first edition of this book, Mr. Haxo declared that "this new elementary reader has been planned with particular emphasis on the acquisition of a reading knowledge of French." In the opinion of this reviewer, the changes made by Mr. Haxo in his revised edition do little or nothing to furnish that

training in oral French in which the author now seems interested. In the preface to his first edition he declared: "It seems evident that the reading objective bids fair to have the best chance of yielding the most satisfactory results." *Images de la France* emphasizes the acquisition of a visual recognition vocabulary and, as far as this reviewer is concerned, still stresses the reading objective. Mr. Haxo's book will prove fairly satisfactory in those colleges where the emphasis is mostly upon reading ability.

ARTHUR C. TURGEON

Wayne University
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ROSTAND, EDMOND, *Cyrano de Bergerac; Chanticleer*, translated by Clifford Hershey Bissell and William Van Wyck. The Ward Ritchie Press, Los Angeles, 1947, pp. xvii+490.

In this translation into pentameter couplets the translators state that "their chief aim has been to keep as close to Rostand's lines, without becoming utterly prosaic, as the exigencies of . . . meter and . . . rhyming would allow. They have tried to remember that they were doing a translation." This aim is largely accomplished: the English versions are painstakingly close to the logical meaning of the two originals. Too often, however, the reader feels, like the translators, that he is doing a translation. Much of the moving brilliance of the French has evaporated. Each of Rostand's plays is a complex organism in which the logical meaning is only one element of the total effect which it is the translator's difficult task to capture in another language. Messrs. Bissell and Van Wyck have worked with intelligence and evident enthusiasm; but their versions, though usually adequate, at times call attention, by awkward meter and artificial phrasing, more to the exigencies of verse than to the business of the dramas—as when Le Bret advises Cyrano (Act I):

For haughty ways of fops you will be paying
A price in spirit that's too high to mention,
If you will give to them so much attention.
Talk with some people of good, common sense.
Learn the effect of your rage so intense.

Cyrano's dying speech is blurred by the same defects. His terse cry

Oui, vous m'arrachez tout, le laurier et la rose!
Arrachez!

becomes

Yes, you snatch all from me: the Laurel of Glory
And Rose of Love! That's the entire story!
But go ahead and snatch!

Intolerable wordiness for a dying man! And as dawn breaks over Chanticleer, Rostand's symbolic and climactic lines:

La Faisane. Ils chantent dans du bleu.
Chanticleer. J'ai chanté dans du noir.
—Ma chanson s'éleva dans l'ombre, et la première.
C'est la nuit qu'il est beau de croire à la lumière!

are rearranged into the comparatively ineffective:

Hen Pheasant. They sing in blueness.
Chanticleer. I crow in the night!
'Tis glorious to believe in unseen light!
My song's the first.

That these lines are capable of adequate translation may be seen from the 1922 Norman version:

But I sang in the dark.
My song was first; I sang it in the night.
In darkness, it is brave to trust in Light.

That the present translators sometimes achieve better verse than the quotations just made is demonstrated by the deft rhythm of a passage immediately following:

They hasten the receding shades, not knowing
Their tardy cock-a-doo helps put to flight
The final remnants of retreating night.

In general, it may be said that the present translation has neither the idiomatic ease of Brian Hooker's *Cyrano* nor Henderson Daingerfield Norman's ability to catch the poetry of the original in graceful English verse. More exact than either of these, it is faithful but not distinguished. The book is handsome in format, with very readable type.

PHILIP W. TIMBERLAKE.

*Kenyon College
Gambier, Ohio*

TURGEON, FREDERICK KING, *Cours pratique de français*. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1947, pp. xi+412. Price, \$2.50.

"*C'est en forgeant qu'on devient forgeron.*" How apropos is the proverb to the author's purpose and his determination to fulfil it. Since French is a living language, we should learn to speak it, emphasizing continually the main medium of speaking—that is, conversation—persevering until the expressed end has been achieved. The author, putting to good use his experience with the United States Army's "Area and Language" program during the war, presents, in fifty-six regular and fourteen review lessons, in the form of dialogs to be memorized and reproduced, material that he has found to be of greatest interest to students. Each lesson consists of five parts, always in this order, which seems quite logical: (1) the complete vocabulary of all new words, including the conjugation of verbs; (2) a conversation proceeding naturally and centering on one main theme; (3) an explanation in English of new principles of grammar, of which many examples have already appeared in the conversation; (4) an extra-large number of exercises illustrative of the grammar, of the type requiring the supplying of a missing word or form; (5) questions based on the conversation. In many lessons are found suggestions for original dialogs.

An intelligent student using this book for a year, under the guidance of a teacher in sympathy with the aims set forth by the author, would have, in addition to a wide vocabulary, an interesting and helpful knowledge of the country of France and a sympathetic understanding of her people.

An introduction to the history of France, through outstanding personages like Charlemagne, Jeanne d'Arc, Louis XIV, Napoléon, the eighteenth-century philosophers, illustrates the use of the narrative tenses—this being the only part of the book not in conversational style. One feature seldom emphasized in other books is a discussion, in dialog form through five lessons, of some of the commonest prefixes and suffixes, a knowledge of which definitely aids in building vocabulary. While conversation is stressed particularly, grammar is not neglected. In fact, it is presented with an unusual freshness which is the result of the author's desire to revitalize what often seems dry. Twenty new photographs and maps of the country and its capital city fit in with the content of the dialogs.

Any teacher who is thinking of using this well-planned book should first read the preface, especially these two statements: "The secret of success is constant supervised practice" and

"It is suggested that two or three hours of drill under supervision be used for each lesson, especially if the class runs much larger than the Army standard of ten students." If schools could provide the necessary help in supervision, teachers should be glad to accept the challenge involved in the two statements and to try the book.

I hesitate to enumerate the many errors that slipped by the proof-readers. I merely cite the wrong forms and name the pages where they can be found: *séparent* (38), [ke] (39); *la père* (58); *finissions* (63); *obéir* (66); *midi et demie* (74); *asse* (92); *un papeterie* (97); *oui* for *si* (107, 301); *chant* (129); *une signe* (137); *les plus grand* (151); *leur bas* (173); *la doute* (179); *quelques fois* (188); *l'avant-dernier syllable* (202); *le peine* (220); *un soirée* (222); *Méditerranée* (241); *dit* (243); *meilleures* (249); *pourquoi* (253); *aux contrôleur* (276); *un petite voyage* (278); *A quelle hôtel* (282); *nous les avons retrouvé* (285); *est* omitted (290); *vous devez pensé* (292); *une pêcheur* (293); *qui ne sont pas formé* (311); division of syllables in *pauvreté* and *administration* (318, 328); *qui le ressemble* (320); *charette* (323); *forcèrent de se retirer* and *força toute la noblesse d'y demeurer* (326, 335); *sa règne* (328); *saintes* (330); *le capital intellectuel*, (341); and *quelques-uns des grandes créations* (350). Punctuation is faulty on page 63, line 2; 78, in question 27; 157, last line; 263, line 10; and 333, line 22. On pages 163, 191, and 262, respectively, accents need correction in words *êtes*, *être*, and *roti*.

C. D. MOREHEAD

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MARITAIN, JACQUES, *Von Bergson zu Thomas von Aquin*, translated by Edward M. Morris. Schoenhof Verlag, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1945, pp. 296. (French edition: Editions de la Maison Française, Inc., New York, 1944.)

The eight essays and lectures here gathered span the years from 1936 to 1942; they testify to Jacques Maritain's visits in Buenos Aires and Toronto, Chicago and Philadelphia, and other cities of the New World. If the reader expects, from the title, to trace an intellectual journey from the later to the earlier great philosopher of Paris, he may be disappointed; such a journey is only implicit in the volume. The important fact of the book is that Maritain, also a great philosopher of Paris, is furthering in the spirit of Aquinas the work which Bergson advanced so far, of renewing metaphysics in France and beyond, after the age of Comte's proud positivism.

Two themes unify the varied chapters. One is that of the perennial philosophy of natural reason brought to bear upon the modern philosophies of the irrational. The other is that of Christian faith attracting philosophy toward self-completion.

In the light of both themes, Maritain clarifies his relation to Bergson—"ce maître qui m'avait éveillé au désir métaphysique."¹ He finds Bergson taking Time so seriously that the idea of enduring substance is repudiated; indeed, the flow of Time is conceived as the substitute for Being. And since intellectual analysis can never grasp this substitute, the human intellect must become the chastened subordinate of a pure intuition of the flow of Time. This, says Maritain, is "a total inversion of the natural movement of the intelligence."² For, the proper first object of intelligence is precisely Being and not the flow of Time. Bergson erred in taking temporal change as substance instead of substance as the root of change.³

An ethical corollary of Bergson's anti-intellectualism is his radical contrast between an infra-rational social mechanics and a supra-rational mysticism. Between these alternatives Maritain finds no ground left by Bergson for a moral philosophy in the proper sense of the term—namely, a rational and free ordering of acts to ends.⁴ Turning to Bergson's treatment of occi-

¹ French edition, p. 85.

² German edition, p. 25.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 38n. French edition.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 66

dental mysticism, Maritain questions an interpretation which ranks the contemplative life below the active life. In his judgment Bergson's philosophy here falls into "an evolutionism more or less Pelagian"⁶, through failing to see in the mysticism of the Occident that a perfect intellectual love of God overflows into an active life as a secondary rather than a primary aim.

(In passing, be it noted that the question of Bergson's conversion to Catholicism is answered in a footnote of the second chapter. Bergson's reasons for postponing baptism are quoted from his will, together with his expression of "moral adherence to Catholicism."⁶

Especial attention should be drawn to two discourses on freedom of the will under the two aspects of "liberty of choice" and "liberty of spontaneity."⁷ (1) Liberty of choice: "It is because the will is internally and naturally necessitated toward Happiness, an absolutely satisfying Happiness, that it is free with regard to all the rest: . . ."⁸ The free act rests upon a mutual determinism of reason and will: "intelligence determines the will in the order of objective causality, or formally-extrinsically, the will determines the intelligence in the order of efficient causality; . . ."⁹ The freedom of man is compatible with the omniscience of God: "God does not foresee our free acts, He sees them; all the moments of time are present to His creative eternity."¹⁰ (2) Liberty of spontaneity: The Thomistic-Aristotelian ontology recognizes a hierarchy of degrees of being. This implies a hierarchy of degrees of spontaneity or modes of unconstrained action, and hence of independence. Finite human personality possesses its proper degree of unconstraint in this ontological scale. But finite human personality has the capacity to transcend its native limits in the direction of its unlimited source. Personality does not suffer annihilation as it wins, through grace, to this transcendence.¹¹

These chapters on liberty provide an ontological focus for the other Thomistic essays of the volume, concerning Immortality, the Problem of Evil and other problems.

Most of the eight chapters have been published already in English, but they are widely scattered. The German translation is adequate, though sometimes departing from the sentence order and paragraphing and not always preserving the grace of Maritain's style.

RICHARD HOCKING

University of Chicago

PURIN, C. M., KIND, JOHN L., AND REINSCH, F. H., *Conversational Approach to German. A Beginners' Book for Intensive and Regular Courses*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1947, pp. xxxi+389. Price, \$2.20.

A critical examination of this textbook, which is both elementary and progressive in content and approach, has been a satisfying and refreshing experience. *Conversational Approach to German* is a scholarly attempt to impart ability to speak and to read German intelligently. It is scholarly because the authors, without restricting themselves to a prescribed vocabulary (MSGV), have endeavored, with a keen perception of their goal, to make their beginners' book in its unusual two-method-combination an effective guide for two different groups of students: (1) those primarily interested in the acquisition of a speaking knowledge, and (2) those preferring the conventional method, slightly modified and leaning toward the oral-aural procedure.

The individual, independent character of the book can best be explained by quoting from the *Preface*: "In order to facilitate and assure correct understanding of the German and thus gain more time for oral-aural drill, the practice texts throughout the book have been translated, as have the *Fragen* from the first set (in *Aufgabe V*) to *Aufgabe XII A*, inclusive. As a rule, the translations are in idiomatic English; where it seemed helpful to the understanding and retention of the German, however, phrasing suggestive of the German idiom has been used, or literal renderings have been added in parenthesis." Our students naturally think in their native tongue; therefore, the opportunity to compare the speech patterns in both lan-

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 76.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 77.

⁷ Chapters V and VI.

⁸ German edition, p. 174.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 180.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 183.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 214.

guages is bound to create confidence. By conversational practice, which "should prevail" even in classes conducted in the conventional manner, a feeling of independence in the use of the foreign idiom will gradually develop—indeed, a realization that the fundamentals of the language are impressed upon the learner's mind through speech. This is important to remember.

Since correct pronunciation is essential in oral-aural practice, the sound values of vowels and consonants are extensively discussed and many drill exercises in pronunciation are provided in the *Introduction*.

The nineteen lessons of the book comprise 322 pages. Although they are, as a rule, rather long (only the first three being fairly short, because of their nature—that is, memorization of typical speech forms), quality has not been sacrificed for quantity. The first four lessons vigorously and systematically introduce simple conversation on familiar situations (*Wie geht es? Wie heisst du?* and the like) with constant repetition and, as a sound pedagogical device at the beginning of a course, not overwhelming the students with extensive vocabularies and idioms. Constant repetition will help eliminate foreign traces of imperfection in speech, strengthen appreciation of accuracy in pronunciation and develop a feeling for sentence rhythm. If this is achieved, the battle is half won. Beginning with the fifth lesson, there are two practice texts in each, followed by *Fragen* and special lesson vocabularies. Topics on dressing, meals, visiting and others are followed by selected stories, as well as discussions on geography, holidays, music, the sending of telegrams, posting letters and even etymological research. If the length of the vocabularies occasionally seems to tax the students' power of retention, a close scrutiny reveals that no undue demands are made since words are repeated as new forms with additional meanings introduced. The authors have been "more concerned with providing a useful vocabulary, regardless of size or frequency count, as a foundation for vocabulary building, in preparation for intelligent reading and speaking." The grammar presented in each lesson records and clarifies only what has been illustrated in the practice texts of the lesson. Teachers may vitalize instruction from their own experience; they may "subordinate" the grammar, or they may use to the fullest extent the "basic grammar and syntax," which "is intentionally complete so as to furnish a solid foundation for intelligent reading as well as for intelligent speaking of the language." As characteristic of the thoroughness and painstaking care with which the authors have presented the material of the entire book, we wish to cite especially the comprehensive, truly scientific discussion of the position of the various speech elements, in the "Survey of Word Order," on pages 254-264. Largely due to methodological considerations, the exercises confine themselves to emphasis on speech patterns and important points of syntax. This is especially evident in the Review Lessons VIII and XVI, which have been carefully planned in harmony with the progress of study, lesson by lesson. The concluding chapter of each lesson, Section C, beginning with *Aufgabe V*, consists of humorous anecdotes (with vocabulary), which are not intended for drill or memorization but merely serve "as a test in comprehension of the foreign idiom."

The appendix includes (1) a table of the characteristics of the seven ablaut classes, (2) a list of strong and irregular verbs and (3) thirteen popular poems. German-English and English-German vocabularies and a complete Index follow.

The following improvements are recommended for consideration: (1) Revision of sentences—p. 43, 5 (not clear); p. 139, 9 (no reference is made to the present participle used as attributive adjective); p. 215, 15; p. 243, 10; p. 303, line 3 (*eingeladen gewesen*). (2) Vocabularies—p. 57, *was* (= *etwas*) does not occur in the preceding text but only *etwas*; p. 112, *was für ein* should read *was . . . für ein*, as used in the text on page 111; p. 245, *Bedienung* and, p. 272, *Abschied* have no plural in the sense used. (3) Has the translation of the practice text in Lesson XIII been omitted intentionally? (4) Some reference relative to the position of the finite verb in a dependent clause is advisable on page 33, 20 (coordinate conjunction), p. 93, 4 (relative pronoun) and p. 97, 11 (subordinate conjunction). (5) Typographical error—p. xxiv, *früchte* (for *fürchte*).

While no book has ever found the approval of every one of the many thousands of instruc-

tors in this country, objective critics will admit that *Conversational Approach to German* is well conceived and merits recognition as a distinct contribution to our field in a creative sense. To the credit of the authors it must be added that they do not proclaim infallibility for their method. Throughout the process of reviewing the book it became more and more clear to me that honesty, sincerity and conviction—not mere notions and speculations—guided the authors in their quest for a synthesis of two views on modern language instruction, and that the book, in the final analysis, exemplifies the opinion of our former managing editor, Professor Henri C. Olinger, expressed in the following words: "The trend in language teaching for some years has been toward greater achievement in oral work; this is to be encouraged, but only to such degree as it serves also the reading objective" (*MLJ*, XXX (1946), p. 521).

HERBERT H. J. PEISEL

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RUSO, JOSEPH LOUIS, *Present Day Italian*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1947, pp. xvi+501. Price, \$2.60.

This new grammar by Joseph Louis Russo is an excellent book. It is patterned after the method and manner of teaching that the author must follow in the classroom, and it reflects the calm temperament and the competence of the author. The book has several good features. The first thirteen lessons are provided with drill on pronunciation, insisting on diphthongs, double consonants, the two sounds of *s* and *z*, the proper sounds of *z*, *c*, *sc*, *g*, the open and close sounds of *e*, *o*. Each lesson has also a proverb translated into English, the choice of which might have been wiser, since Italian is unusually rich in characteristic and witty proverbs.

A section of the book is dedicated to "*Dialoghi Pratici e Lettere*," a feature which justifies more than any other the title of the book, *Present Day Italian*. Each dialog and letter has an English translation on the back of the page, thus enabling the student to test his proficiency in understanding the text or to refer to the text if he does not understand it.

Grammar rules are clearly stated, and helpful hints accompany them in order to simplify the process of learning and applying them. These hints have been placed in footnotes, thus giving the book a welcomed simplicity and the desired completeness. The index is unusually complete and the book is free of typographical mistakes. The format of the book is very attractive.

This reviewer would have liked greater attention given to cultural material, on the grounds that the intellectual level of the teaching of a modern language would be enlivened thereby and that cultural material offers less difficulty in its vocabulary than that derived from everyday life. However, this is not said in adverse criticism of the present book since the author did not propose to follow such a criterion and has fully realized the goals that he has set for himself.

There are a few points, however, about which we venture to state that a slightly different treatment would have enhanced the clearness of presentation of specific grammatical points. The formation of the plural of nouns and adjectives in *co* and *go* could be approached from the functional standpoint: if of every-day use, they keep the hard sound of the *c* and *g*; if of scientific and cultural use, they end in *ci* and *gi*. In teaching the preterit of irregular verbs, it would have been useful to point out that, if an irregular verb has *d* or *nd* in the infinitive, it changes these consonants to *s* in the preterit; *g* changes to *s*, *gg* to *ss*; *ng*, *nc* to *ns*; *u* to *ss*. These changes are constant. Likewise, the partitive construction in Italian is not adequately treated by stating that it "is frequently rendered by the contraction of *di* and the definite article." The example given in the text "*Vedo del gesso*" (I see some chalk) may also be expressed, with slight modification in meaning, by *Vedo un po' di gesso*, *vedo gesso*, *vedo il gesso*. The expression *del gesso* is an indefinite construction as well as a partitive one, with *del* often performing the function of an indefinite adjective.

In conclusion, this reviewer considers *Present Day Italian*, on the whole, a clear, well-balanced and very helpful book.

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LINCOLN, JOSEPH NEWHALL, *Charts of Brazilian Literature*. Edwards Brother, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1947, pp. x+86. Price, \$1.00.

In August 1945, Professor Joseph Lincoln died in Ann Arbor, and the University of Michigan lost an outstanding teacher and scholar. Professor Lincoln's interest covered a wide range of subjects. He had made significant contributions to Aljamiado studies, he had analyzed numerous problems of sources and parallels of many important legends and had studied their language.

But it was not only to the subject of early Spanish literature that Professor Lincoln turned his discerning attention. He realized very early the growing importance of Hispano-American studies, and trained in the highest tradition, he concluded that sources and tools come first; he devoted himself to the tedious, but unavoidable task of preparing bibliographies, and in 1939, he brought out his excellent *Guide to the Bibliography and History of Hispano-American Literature*.

For some time Professor Lincoln had been directing the work in Portuguese at the University of Michigan. Brazilian literature had long attracted his attention, and for more than two years he worked constantly on the preparation of a bibliography of Brazilian literature. This, Professor Lincoln had practically completed at the time of his death, and Brazilian scholarship owes a debt of gratitude to Winifred Hobbs Lincoln for her careful preparation for publication of her husband's *Bibliography*. In this task she has shown herself to be a well trained worker in the field of bibliographical research. Mrs. Lincoln has brought out this volume as a memorial to her husband.

Professor Lincoln divided the literary history of Brazil into five periods: (1) Colonial Period (1500-1750), under the domination of Portuguese thought and literature; (2) Colonial Period (1750-1830), with a marked feeling of independence from Portuguese domination; (3) Regency-Empire (1830-1870), under the influence of English and French literatures. It is the period of the birth and flourishing of Romanticism; (4) Empire-Republic (1870-1920). This is the period of the revolt against Romanticism, of the influence of the Parnassians and Symbolists and of the appearance of Realism and Naturalism; (5) Republic (1920-1943). This period deals with modern and contemporary literature. It includes the regional and social novel, and Modernism. It practically ends with the year 1942, but Professor Lincoln, in an effort to give us valuable information which may complete our estimate of some important figure or movement, added a few items which go past 1942. We feel this was wisely done.

The types of works presented include poetry, novel, history, theater, erudition and criticism. Each period is preceded by a chronological history of the period, which is very helpful, as it enables us to understand the integration of history and literature. To show early evidence of scientific interests, certain pioneer scientists are included in the early periods.

Professor Lincoln has included all the leading authors, and he has been very generous with authors of the second rank. Because of the frequent shift in spelling tendencies he had planned to modernize the spelling of names of authors and books, but Mrs. Lincoln felt it was desirable to follow the spelling of the Congressional Library, and this she did as she prepared the *Bibliography* for publication.

A very valuable part of Professor Lincoln's *Charts* is to be found in his *Selective Bibliography*, which precedes the *Charts*.

Altogether, Professor Lincoln has made a very valuable contribution to Brazilian studies. His *Charts* is an indispensable tool for a better comprehension of a wide and little known field, and we will always be grateful to this pioneer for opening new vistas to us in the cultural history of our largest sister republic.

JULIO DEL TORO

University of Michigan

ALPERN, H. AND MARTEL, J., *Conversational Spanish and Grammar Digest. A Refresher Course*. S. F. Vanni, New York, 1947, pp. xi+202. Price, \$2.50.

This is an unusual and informative compendium of conversational phrases, special vocabularies and word studies, together with an outline of Spanish grammar. Most of the book is devoted to the eighteen chapters of conversational Spanish, each of which is built around a single topic: time, numbers, weather, food, shopping, amusements and the like. Each chapter begins with a reference vocabulary (English and Spanish in facing columns) and continues with model sentences arranged in similar fashion. The material is helpful and very complete.

Chapter 18 consists of thirteen pages of word distinctions, giving the varying Spanish equivalents of English words with more than one meaning, such as *about*, *account*, *back*, *ball*, *become*, *bell* and many others. A similar list of Spanish words with more than one equivalent in English is begun but left to the student to complete.

The digest of grammar is well presented, although at times the desire for succinctness leads to inadequate explanations, as in the treatment of *conigo*, relative *el que* and the sequence of tenses in the subjunctive.

There are no exercises, except for four sample review tests at the end of the book. There is no end-vocabulary, though there are indexes in Spanish and English with references to the special vocabularies and to sections of the grammar digest. I do not see how the book could be used as the sole text in a review class, but it would be a very useful supplementary text, and it could be used with great profit by an adult who already knew Spanish and who wished to enlarge his fund of conversational words and phrases.

The book is printed clearly, though not attractively, and there are very few misprints.

DONALD D. WALSH

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FLORES, ANGEL AND VÁZQUEZ, ALBERTO, *Paisaje y hombres de América*. The Dryden Press, New York, 1947, pp. xiii+181. Price, \$2.25.

The unusual make-up of this textbook is certain to cause comment. The editors have departed from the usual procedure of placing the vocabulary at the end of the book; instead they have sliced the pages in two horizontally so that the vocabulary (lower three inches of the page) is a separate dictionary which is used independently of the text (upper five inches). This "Dutch-door" arrangement eliminates for the student the time and patience-consuming task of keeping the place in the text with one hand and searching (sometimes frantically!) at the back; it enables the user to look up words with the greatest ease, speed and convenience because, as he reads his text page, he merely consults the pages below for the meaning of the burden word. Those of us who have spent many days, weeks and months of our lives consulting vocabularies and lexicons can truly appreciate what this time-saving device means, and we should welcome anything that makes the reading problem simpler for the student.

The choice of the reading material is also worthy of note. With few exceptions the twelve poems and twelve prose selections are from contemporary authors and are printed here for the first time in an American school edition. In the *Preface* we find that "novelty and freshness" have been criteria in making the inclusion. In these two points Professors Flores and Vázquez have been successful. Likewise they have been in their chief endeavor, which has been "to present fiction and poetry which mirror, in a most dramatic way, the broad living panoramas of America—landscapes and men, with their particular customs and traditions as well as their universal qualities." Geographically, the writers cover all dominant sections of Spanish America; politically and socially, they are equally representative.

Since, generally speaking, poetry has always held precedence over prose writing in Spanish America, let us begin with the poets in this volume. Three continue the tradition of Olmedo

and Juan León Mere: Alejandro Carrión, one of the most representative members of the reaction against the ruining qualities of Romanticism; Ernesto Noboa Caamaño, who died in 1928, at the age of 36, leaving behind a single book of poems, *Romanza de las horas*, in which one may note the clear traces of Verlaine and Samain; and Jorge Carrera Andrade, credited with being a precursor of one of the most widespread trends in contemporary Latin American literature—that is, indigenism. Three are Venezuelan: Fernando Paz Castillo, whose "*Hay luces entre los árboles*" (pp. 123–126) is replete with emotional appeal; Antonio Spinetti Dini, represented in this text by his "*Parábola de la generosidad*"; and Vicente Fuentes, who writes of Francisco, a fisherman, in "*El tejedor*" (pp. 46–47). Nicolás Guillén, employing his kind of verbal surrealism in "*Fusilamiento*" (pp. 33–34), and Eugenio Florit, an accomplished disciple of the great Spanish poet Juan Ramón Jiménez, are Cubans. Others included are Rafael Estrada of Mexico, Antonio Avila Jiménez of Bolivia, José Varallanos of Peru, and the famous Honduran poet and bibliographer, Rafael Heliodoro Valle.

The variety of prose writers, like that of the poets, presented in this collection should enable the interest of any class to be sustained. There are several "classic" authors represented: the renowned Uruguayan master of the short story, Horacio Quiroga, writing of life in Misiones in *El techo de incienso* (pp. 99–122); the Bolivian historian, Eufonio Viscarra, whose *Doña Inés de Taboada* (pp. 26–32) is interesting for its picture of the brilliant social life in the colonial city of Mizque; and José Millá, outstanding novelist of Guatemala and one of the most prolific of Central American authors. In addition, the editors have supplied us with representative selections from several who are taking their positions among the most important younger writers of Latin America: one is the Chilean poet and schoolteacher in the small town of Rancagua, Oscar Castro; another is the Mexican José Revueltas, whose novel, *El luto humano*, won the Pan American Novel Award for 1943 and has appeared in English translation this year. A third group consists of several names familiar to newspaper readers in their respective countries: the Chilean Roberto Alarcón Lobos, who uses the pseudonym, "*Galo Pando*"; Conrado Nalé Roxlo, Argentine poet, playwright and humorist, known as "*Chamico*" and "*Alguien*"; and the Mexican José Elizondo ("*Pepe Naves*" to his readers), one of the most delightful of the present day *costumbristas*, developing in direct line from "*Facundo*" and "*Micros*." Lastly, there is along with Quiroga a painter of distinctive background: Juan Carlos Davalos depicts the Argentine llanos in *El viento blanco* (pp. 128–153), which won the second National Literary Prize of Argentina in 1921.

Also in this galaxy of prose artists are the Chilean Carlos Corvalán, whose amusing *Las vacas viajeras* (pp. 49–59) certainly has student appeal; the Argentine Enrique Méndez Calzada, with a story entitled *Un haragán* (pp. 2–8); and Enrique González Tuñón, also from Argentina, represented by *¿Quién es el traidor?* selected from his volume published in 1927, *El alma de las cosas inanimadas*.

Paisaje y hombres de América contains no illustrations, pictures or teaching aids. I believe that it would have been advisable to include biographical data about the authors who have been included. Some students will want that information. There are a few misprints: *afternoon* for *afternoon* in the vocabulary under *siesta*, *extraño* for *extraño* on page 172, and *infelí* for *infeliz* on page 93.

From every point of view *Paisaje y hombres de América* is a welcome and distinguished addition to our texts for intermediate Spanish classes.

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TATUM, TERRELL LOUISE, *Viñetas de la América Latina*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1947, pp. vi+168. Price, \$1.60.

Viñetas de la América Latina should prove to be one of the most popular Spanish texts to appear in recent years. It is interesting, well organized and full of information concerning Latin America which every student of Spanish should have.

Professor Tatum has divided her book into four parts. The first one is entitled *Panorama de los Siglos*, and it includes the following chapters—"Las vísperas de la conquista," "Los frutos de la conquista," "Independencia" and "La amalgama de siglos." The second part is called *Las Regiones y las Riquezas de la América Latina*. It is divided into five interesting and informative subdivisions. Part three is entitled *El Desarrollo de las Riquezas de la Tierra*. Subjects treated here include *el azúcar, la banana, el cacao, el café, los minerales* and *el petróleo*.

Part four bears the title of *Cosas de Todos los Días* and is one of the most interesting and valuable from the practical point of view. Among subjects treated here are *la carta, transportes, alquileres, ventas y compras, sociales, momentos domésticos, el hotel, las comidas y de interés general*. The fourth part brings students as close as possible to Spanish America by providing opportunities to check their ability in using Spanish. In the words of Professor Tatum, "It provides numerous daily situations for the purpose of increasing your ability to handle the language through a swift broadening of practical vocabulary. Special attention is given to newspaper and magazine advertisements, society items, newspaper articles of general interest, menus, timetables, hotel bills, service slips, tickets, and so on—all practical aspects of daily life in Spanish America." The exercises have been designed to give students sufficient and proper practice so that they will be able to get along "on their own" in Latin America. Abundant photographic reproductions of all kinds, from the cover of the Cuban magazine *América* to newspaper advertisements, make the material practical and real.

Viñetas de la América Latina is designed primarily for intermediate college Spanish. It can be used profitably, however, at other levels both in high school and in college. One of the most pleasing features of the book is that the vocabulary has not been limited to word lists based on word counts. Current and colloquial usage is properly abundant. Difficulties are often explained at the bottom of the page, however.

The text is very soundly planned throughout. Professor Tatum shows her thorough knowledge of teaching techniques in her organization of *Viñetas de la América Latina*. For the student the book should prove both interesting and informative, and for the teacher very teachable.

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